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Intercultural Learning and Development Among Youth Participants in the Short Term Educational Programmes of an International Charity (CISV)

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Thesis submitted for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy of the University of London

Declaration:

The material presented in this thesis is the original work of the candidate except as otherwise acknowledged. It has not been submitted previously, in part or whole, for a degree, at any university, at any other time.

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81,377 words, excluding references and appendices.

Abstract

Evaluation of non-formal learning in short-term programmes which offer opportunities for youth participants to develop aspects of intercultural competence has proved problematic, (Ilg, 2013, p. 190). This thesis compares the outcome of youth participant use of a *Predictive and Reflective Questionnaire* (PaRQ) with records of learning made by their adult group leaders. Simultaneously, it explores the use of this purpose designed, dual format, questionnaire, strategy as a potential tool for evaluation of non-formal learning in other situations.

The 36, teenaged participants completed questionnaires at the beginning and end of their three week, international, Summer Camp. Each youth participant noted their predicted rating at the beginning of the programme and reflective rating at the end of the programme, in addition to their current position, on indicators of aspects of intercultural competence. Comparison of beginning and end scores for individual participants showed re-adjustment of perception of starting scores, similar to the score “re-calibration” noted by Thurber, Scanlin, Scheuler, & Henderson (2007). These changes, supported by learning outcomes suggested in participants’ narrative spaces, indicate that they may have reported inflated perceptions of competence on several items at the start of the programme. It is suggested that such re-adjustment supports the reflective strategy employed in this new evaluation tool. Comparison is also made between youth participants’ scores and programme leaders’ assessment of participant achievements, and discussion of discrepancies is provided. Parallel work included informal interviews with the nine group leaders focussed on use of the existing, competence based, Programme Director’s Planning and Evaluation Form (PDPEF) in both the current and any previous programmes in which they were involved.

Recommendations are provided for further investigation of the potential of PaRQ as a tool to measure movement towards stated objectives in other programmes of non-formal learning, and for improved use of the CISV PDPEF.

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Research reported in this thesis emerged from an earlier project proposed by Kiran Hingorani when Education and Training Officer for CISV International. Many thanks to Kiran for his inspiration, and to his successor, Dr Rupert Freiderichsen, for so many valuable conversations. Secretary General, Gabrielle Mandell and other members of staff at CISV International Office gave specific support and advice for which I am most grateful. Preparing presentations with Tamara Thorpe, Chair of the CISV Evaluation and Research Committee, and Charles Catania, an experienced CISV Trainer, I knew I could also learn from them. Thank you, Chuck and Tamara!

The leaders and youth participants in the CISV Summer Camp which was the basis for the case study reported here formed an exceptional community; they welcomed me and provided me with inspiration to record their work. Thank you to all of them and to those local CISV members in the Host Branch who offered so much support.

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Publications

Thorpe, T. & Watson, J. (2013) Experiential learning in youth mobility programmes: a tool to plan, monitor and evaluate, in Gunter J. Friesenhahn, Hano Schild, Hans-Georg Wicke, and Judit Balogh, (Eds). *Learning mobility and non-formal learning in European contexts: Policies, approaches and examples*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Watson, J. (2012) CISV Resources for Programme Improvement: Research Report on the Strategic Goal “To have high quality educational materials accessible to everyone at all levels of the organisation.” CISV. Available at: <http://www.cisv.org/cisv-education/research/recent-research-projects/>

Watson, J. & Zhu Hua, (in preparation) “I’m getting worse, according to the questionnaires, anyway!” The reliability of self-assessment questionnaires in measuring the development of Intercultural Communicative Competence.

Presentations

Watson, J. and Thorpe, T. (2011) Youth mobility impact: Using competence based evaluation in experiential learning programmes, Conference Presentation at *European Conference “Framework, Quality and Impact of Young Europeans’ Learning Mobility”*, 11-13 May 2011, European Youth Centre, Budapest, Hungary.

Watson, J. (2012) Mission Accomplished! CISV Resources for Programme Improvement: Research Report on the Strategic Goal “To have high quality educational materials accessible to everyone at all levels of the organisation.” Presentation at *CISV Annual International Meeting*, 4th August 2012, Cergy - Pontoise, France.

Watson, J. and Zhu Hua, (2012) “I’m getting worse, according to the questionnaires, anyway!” The reliability of self-assessment questionnaires in measuring the development of Intercultural Communicative Competence, Conference presentation at *Intercultural Dialogue: Current Challenges / Future Directions: The 11th IALIC (International Association for Languages and Intercultural Communication) International Conference*. 30th Nov - 2nd Dec, 2012, Durham University, Durham, United Kingdom.

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Abbreviations used in the text of the thesis:

AIC	Assessment of Intercultural Competence
CADA -NI	Coalition of Aid and Development Agencies in Northern Ireland
CISV	formerly known as Children's International Summer Villages
CYFANFYD	Development Education Association for Wales
DE	Development Education
DEA	Development Education Association
DEAR	Development Education and Awareness Raising
DEEEP	Development Education Exchange in Europe Project
DEC	Development Education Centre(s)
DfID	Department for International Development
DMIS	Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity
EE	Environmental Education
GEF	Group Evaluation Form
ICC	Intercultural Competence
IDEA	Irish Development Education Association
IDEAS	International Development Education Association of Scotland
IDI	Intercultural Development Inventory
IEF	Individual Evaluation Form
INCA	Intercultural Assessment
LMO	Like-minded organisation
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
PDPEF	Programme Director's Planning and Evaluation Form
YOGA	Your Objectives, Guidelines, and Assessment

Introduction

Constructive education must not be limited to the teaching in schools. It is a task that calls for the efforts of all mankind. It must aim to reform humanity so as to permit the inner development of human personality and to develop a more conscious vision of the mission of mankind and the present conditions of social life. (Montessori, 1992)

In the quotation above, Montessori argues for the extension of education beyond the formal setting of the school. This suggests the encouragement of non-formal education or, perhaps more accurately, the encouragement of non-formal *learning*, in various settings, particularly those designed for personal and social education. In calling for “the efforts of all mankind” and “a more conscious vision of the mission of mankind”, Montessori (ibid) implicitly suggests that such education should address universal values such as those promoted in intercultural education. The project described in this thesis was planned to evaluate the learning of participants in the programme of non-formal education activities used in a short term, intercultural, residential programme, a Summer Camp for young people aged 14 years. In so doing it was also planned to explore the potential of a purpose designed *Predictive and Reflective Questionnaire* (PaRQ), supplemented by participants’ comments on their own learning written in “narrative spaces”, for potential use in other contexts. Participants’ views of their learning were compared with the records made by their adult group leaders on the *Group Evaluation Form* (GEF) section of the *Programme Director’s Planning and Evaluation Form* (PDPEF). Earlier research (Watson, 2012b) had raised some concerns with regard to the use of this latter form, (a combined planning and evaluation strategy, introduced three years prior to the work reported here), so use of this GEF section of the PDPEF was also explored in interviews with adult group leaders and in observations of its use.

As a long-term member of CISV, with experience as a youth participant, adult leader and in several volunteer roles at local, national and international levels, including membership of CISV international research or evaluation committees, I have commitment to all of CISV's constitutional objectives, shown below.

- to further education in international understanding of children throughout the world without distinction of race, religion or politics so that they may grow to maturity conscious of their responsibilities as human beings;
- to develop the individual child's potential for cooperation with others;
- to further research contributing to this work. (CISV, 2013a)

Figure I: CISV Constitutional objectives

I have particular interest in the third of these objects, seeing research both as an aid to developing the educational potential of CISV participation and as a means of demonstrating the benefits of the organisation to potential funders. More specifically, as the Chair of the CISV International Evaluation and Research Committee, 2008 to 2010, I was aware of the organisational need for evidence of learning in CISV programmes. Some years ago I arrived at a CISV Annual International Meeting in USA where promotion of CISV International as an organisation was under discussion with a marketing expert. Her first question was to ask for evidence of the benefits of participation. At that date, having recently left full-time employment, I was just embarking on a study of the perceived long term effects of CISV participation in a structured sample of former participants from the first 40 years of the organisation (Watson, 2003; 2008; 2012a) but was only able to offer historic evidence of the value of participation. It was also apparent, at that time and in the immediately following years, that there was scepticism among members of the CISV International Board as to the purposes and value of social science research and its relevance to CISV.

Attempting to demonstrate the importance of CISV's third objective (noted above) and the continuing relevance of research to the organisation, the then Education

and Training Officer promoted two research projects to start in 2009 and be reported to the International Board in 2012: an evaluation of the CISV *Training the Trainers* programme (Catania, 2012) and an evaluation of recently introduced educational resources (Watson, 2012b). During my work on this latter project other questions emerged, particularly concerning how to investigate participants' own perspective on their learning of aspects of intercultural competence through experience in CISV's international programmes, as well as some concern that the Programme Director's Planning and Evaluation Form, it appeared, might not be used as originally planned. Having previously explored the long-term perceptions of benefits of CISV participation using a detailed questionnaire for adult completion, and with professional awareness, as well as CISV experience, of work with children and adolescents, I had knowledge and experience on which I could draw in building a methodology and devising methods for the work recorded in this thesis.

Although I am an "insider" to the national (CISV Great Britain) and international organisations, my earlier programme experience was mostly in CISV Villages for age 11 years and I had no previous experience of Summer Camp. This specific blend of knowledge and experience provided an "insider" background to the short periods of participation and use of research instruments described in Chapter 4, whilst I was able to observe educational strategies and activities with which I was not always familiar from an "outsider" perspective. (The benefits or disadvantages of "insider" research are further discussed in Chapter 3.)

CISV is, predominantly, a volunteer organisation, active in approximately 70 countries around the world, with just a small number of salaried staff in the international headquarters in Newcastle upon Tyne. While early research was planned and largely executed by the founder of the organisation (see Chapter 2), research undertaken in recent years has normally been the work of graduate students. The original CISV

programme was the “Village” for children aged 11 years and, consequently, early research focussed on this age group. More recent work has included some data from Summer Camps, the more recently developed CISV programme for ages 14 and 15, (e.g. Baraldi, 2009; Baraldi and Ierverse, 2012) but there was a need to demonstrate the educational benefits of participation at this age as well as motivation to trial the use of a new form of evaluation, the PaRQ. Introducing the use of new tools for programme planning and / or evaluation such as PDPEF or PaRQ might also be considered to be an organisational innovation so the process of innovation is also considered in Chapter 1.

As an organisation with the statement of purpose *CISV educates and inspires action for a more just and peaceful world* (CISV, 2013) CISV arranges short term programmes that include non-formal educational activities. Many of these activities might be used in other contexts such as Development Education organisations or in citizenship education, (discussed in Chapter 1). Residential programmes, such as those of CISV, also provide opportunities for informal learning in the interaction between participants at times other than in the organised activities. Any evaluation of learning made at the end of such a programme cannot separate the impact of deliberately planned programme activities from the general effect of sharing time with participants from other countries. However, basing the evaluation tool on the goal indicators set out for the programme means that these are addressed as core items of the expected learning for youth participants. This is essentially an evaluation of attainment of aspects of intercultural competence which have been identified as programme goal indicators. It is also an exploration of the use of the PaRQ as a new tool for self evaluation of learning. Comparison of the youth participant self evaluation with the opinion of their adult leaders on their attainment of programme goal indicators as scored on the Group Evaluation Form(GEF) section of the Programme Director’s Planning and Evaluation Form(PDPEF) involved consideration of the function and use of this latter form.

The work described in this thesis was planned to address some identified gaps in research including the need for strategies in evaluation of learning in non-formal, intercultural education and the potential value of self-evaluation strategies for participants in short term, intercultural education programmes for teenagers. It would also involve a comparison of adult and youth perceptions of learning in this short term intercultural programme, and consider the use of the tool already adopted within the organisation to incorporate planning and evaluation in one document (the PDPEF), which is designed to facilitate programme development. While relevant literature could be explored in isolation, the practical aspects of this research involved fieldwork in the specific Summer Camp programme, described in Chapter 4. It might have been considered that full immersion as a participant observer would be the best way to explore the learning that takes place in a Summer Camp, but it was only possible to be involved for a few days at the beginning and end of the programme. However, these short periods of time were used intensively to trial the use of the PaRQ, to talk with leaders and to observe both planning processes and educational activities. It is posited that observation just at the beginning and end of the programme may even have been an advantage in that change was more apparent than it would have been to an observer of the gradual learning processes throughout such a camp.

Chapter 1 introduces and discusses literature which has influenced thinking about the research project. It includes topics such as the meaning of “education” and “non-formal education”, educational evaluation, innovation in education, and discusses various forms of non-formal and informal education that include intercultural experience. In Chapter 2 the case study organisation, CISV, is described and information about earlier research and pedagogical development is provided before the research questions are introduced and related to the specific programme in which the research reported in this thesis took place. Chapter 3 discusses the researcher’s

perspective as an “insider” researcher through membership of the organisation in which the research was conducted, and notes the importance of ethical considerations in work with young people, before it describes the development of the principal research tool, PaRQ. Chapter 4 describes the data collection process and results are reported in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 contains a discussion of results, including the potential for the use of PaRQ in other CISV programmes or for evaluation in other educational situations, and some limitations of the research. Some conclusions and recommendations are presented in Chapter 7.

The results of this research will be offered to CISV in full and summarised in an “executive brief” that can be included in on-line information about CISV research. In addition to the new knowledge produced in developing this innovative evaluation tool the process of undertaking the research and writing a thesis has provided personal experience and insights which are valuable in my current role as the research specialist on the CISV International Training and Quality Assurance Committee. In this respect the journey has been as interesting as the outcome.

Chapter 1

Intercultural learning and educational evaluation in the context of non-formal education

1.1 Introducing education and experiential learning

The increasingly multicultural character of society has invested education with an important new task. In multicultural settings, education is intertwined with intercultural communication (Baraldi, 2009, p. 20)

This first chapter has been planned to provide a background to the work described and discussed later in the thesis. Research in an international Summer Camp for participants aged 14 years involved consideration of the education / learning strategies employed, evaluation of the participants' learning, aspects of work with adolescents, and, the development of intercultural competence. Use of a new, purpose-designed tool for the evaluation of participant learning will be explored in later chapters so the process of innovation is also introduced in this chapter.

The quotation given above has been selected to introduce the literature to be discussed in this first chapter because the chapter in itself is an intertwined discussion of ideas about differing forms of education, educational evaluation, intercultural competence, international learning experiences for young people, and aspects of work with children and adolescents, all of which underlie the empirical work to be described in later chapters of this thesis. The chapter will, firstly, outline various forms of education (with a particular emphasis on non-formal education and experiential education) and introduce purposes and methods of evaluation of education / learning. After a consideration of some aspects of group work and friendship for adolescents it will then discuss the meaning and importance of Intercultural Competence (ICC) in contemporary society and consider some earlier studies of the benefits of intercultural

experiences for young people. Further literature specific to the pedagogical development of CISV will be introduced in Chapter 2.

1.1.1 A working definition of “education”

Education does not have to take place in schools and does not necessarily require teachers. . . . Education is not the name of a particular activity or process. It is a name applied generically to a number of different activities and processes. . . . ‘Education’ is a word that has to be defined in terms of the intentions, rather than the results, of would-be educators. . . . (Barrow and Milburn, 1990, pp 104 - 105)

This section will explore some of these ideas about the meaning of the word *education* and then move on to consider what is meant by the associated terms, *non-formal education* and *informal education* which frequently provide the contexts for *experiential learning* and *intercultural learning*.

1.1.2 Education beyond the classroom

In conventional use the word “education” is closely associated with work in schools and colleges, but this thesis will take a somewhat different perspective. Kemmis (2007) distinguishes between “education” and “schooling”, suggesting that education is:

. . . the double process of (1) developing the knowledge, values and capacities of individuals and their capacities for self-expression, self-development, and self-determination, and, (2) through the preparation of rising generations, of developing the discourses and culture, social relations, institutions and practices, and the material-economic and environmental conditions of a society, in the interests of self-expression, self-development, and self-determination. (p. 11)

Kemmis (ibid), further, suggests that “schooling” is a more formally institutionalised process or set of practices within a given society, designed to facilitate participation in the “cultural, social and economic life of the society,” (p. 11), which is

generally organised through schools or other formal settings. He argues that schooling often consists of pupils undertaking specific tasks rather than experiencing education about the world in which they live. In doing this, he posits four major challenges to education: the need to emancipate students from irrational ways of thinking, especially with regard to international relations post 9/11; the need to educate about social relations, for example awareness of the poverty gap and notions such as the Millennium Development Goals; the need for education towards more sustainable styles of life; and, the need to work towards “better use of the world’s social and material resources,” (2007, p. 14). Kemmis, thus, suggests that education is not just the achievement of standards in a hierarchy of tasks, as reflected, for example, in progress through the stages of the National Literacy Strategy or other formally structured curricula. He argues that education is not restricted to formal learning in schools and should, also, address what young people need to help them to become aware of how they can contribute to the development of a just and equal society. It is this latter aspect, or purpose, of education which is the basis of discussion in the following sections.

1.1.3 Non-formal education and informal learning

Kemmis (2007), as explained above, distinguishes between “education” and “schooling”. Another way of describing what he defines as “schooling” is to use the term “formal education”. Formal education is considered to include the structured and somewhat hierarchical provision of schools, colleges and universities and their programmes for delivery of both general and specialised or professional training. This can be contrasted with non-formal education, which is considered to be organised educational activity outside the formal system. Participation in non-formal education is voluntary, but non-formal education often has specific goals and educational activities

are planned so as to work towards these goals. The associated term “informal education” is applied to learning that takes place throughout life, in everyday settings, and through which an individual acquires attitudes, skills and knowledge from the influence of those around him / her, (Smith, 2001). This classification has been adopted by the European Union for use in describing educational aspects of youth exchange programmes. Recognition of non-formal and /or informal learning for participants in European youth programmes, such as European Voluntary Service, may be given by the provision of a “Youthpass” (see: http://ec.europa.eu/youth/focus/recognition-of-non-formal-learning-experiences_en.htm)

In his discussion of the concepts of formal, non-formal and informal education and learning, Rogers (2004) argues that the division suggested above is somewhat simplistic, particularly with regard to the terms “non-formal” and “informal” education. He suggests that, in an era where “lifelong learning” is overtly advocated, non-formal education has become more diverse, for example in bridging towards formal education in the certification of adult education classes and – in another direction – in tailoring of provision towards the needs of specific groups. Rogers also suggests that what is frequently defined as “informal education” would, more accurately, be described as “informal *learning*” in that it takes place outside overtly planned learning situations, through everyday activities. He posits that this brings it closer to “experiential learning”, (see section 1.2.4, below). Rogers concludes by suggesting that, instead of arbitrary distinctions between formal, non-formal and informal education, given the complexity of current provision and expectation, it might be more useful to consider them as constituting a continuum. He extends this by suggesting that informal education may contain specifically planned interactive or participatory activities in contrast to informal learning, which is “. . . incidental learning, . . . the most extensive and most important part of learning that all of us do in our everyday lives” (p. 7). His

revised continuum thus runs through: formal education, non-formal education, participatory education, and, informal learning.

The Council of Europe (CoE) (Mazza, 2008) also notes the idea of a continuum between different types of learning experiences and the potential for interaction between, for example, learning in the formal school curriculum and that which occurs through participation in non-formal learning activities. However, in advocating the recognition of non-formal education, the CoE suggests that non-formal education, in complementing formal education, has other characteristics. These include the voluntary nature of participation, general availability, a wide range of settings and locations, organised learning processes with stated objectives, emphasis on active participation and development of life skills, and a basis in action and experience which consider the needs of the participants. In line with these descriptors, the case study which is the focus of this thesis is considered to be in the non-formal education sector. Participation is voluntary but there are stated programme goals and indicators of achievement. The interactive activities used within the programme were planned to provide experiences for the participants that would facilitate goal achievement. However, as CISV intercultural programmes are organised so that young people can live together for three to four weeks, they have opportunities to learn about similarities and differences among their peers in an incidental way. In this respect it is noted that such programmes also contain elements which could be included in Rogers' (2004) clarification of "informal learning". Informal learning is characteristic of educational situations such as study abroad schemes and voluntary development education projects, which will be discussed in later sections of this chapter. It is noted that opportunities for study abroad and both opportunity for and motivation to engage in development education activities often occur during teenage / adolescent years, so some aspects of work with children and

young people will be addressed after discussion of learning through experience (experiential learning).

1.1.4 Development of the concept of Experiential Learning

“Learning through experience” is often considered to be an important aspect of non-formal education, although it has also been discussed in the context of the formal education system where “experiential” strategies, in either real or simulated situations, are sometimes used. Over seventy years ago Dewey (1938) argued that all learning is based on experience, so it is the responsibility of the educator to ensure that the experiences provided to learners are appropriate to their needs and to their current situation. Models of experiential education are frequently based on the ideas developed and described by Kolb (1984), although Kolb acknowledges the work of other writers (e.g. Lewin, Piaget, Dewey) who had previously discussed the relationship between experience and learning. Kolb suggests a four stage cycle for the learning process: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation (generalisation) active experimentation (or application in other contexts), illustrated below.

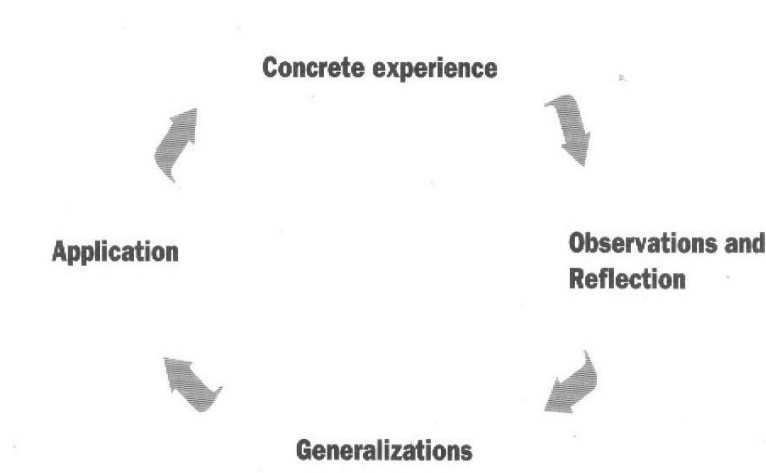


Figure 1.1: Kolb's (1984) model of Experiential Learning
(as used in CISV *Core Educational Principles*, 1998)

In this model a concrete experience, or participation in a simulation, is followed by related reflection, potentially with discussion of observations or perceived impact, with co-participants. This reflection should support the development of generalisations, based on the experience, which can affect subsequent actions or form the foundations of the next concrete experience in a cyclic fashion. Kolb (ibid) argues that “learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping experience and transforming it,” (p. 41) indicating that the experience alone is not sufficient; rather, there needs to be reflection on, or consideration of, the experience in order for it to have generated meaningful learning. Kolb suggests that an individual’s preferred learning style can influence the learning process and the aspect of the learning cycle with which s/he is generally most involved (p. 76), but he goes on to suggest that the learning style used can also be affected by the current job role or specific task. Kolb’s (ibid; Chapter 6) discussion of the relationship between experiential learning and personal development is particularly relevant to the current work. He argues that experiences and interactions with others can be “internalised as an independent development achievement” (p133) and thus learning is a means for human development and interaction between the inherent attributes of the individual and various aspects of society. That is, “Human beings create culture with all its artificial stimuli to further their own development,” (p133).

As a clarification of the difference between traditional education and experiential education, Fantini, Arias-Galicia and Guay (2001) offer a range of contrasting dimensions, shown in the table on the next page.

Experiential education stresses:	Traditional education stresses:
getting involved and doing	watching and listening
learning from classmates and on your own	expecting teacher to have all the answers
learner and teacher sharing responsibility for learning	teacher being responsible for learning
sharing decision making	decision making by teacher
learning how to learn	learning facts (or skills)
identifying problems and solutions	memorising and acquiring information
recognising importance of learners' experience and knowledge	minimizing learners' experience and knowledge
guiding and assisting in learning on one's own	telling, prescribing and ordering
understanding learners' motivation for what needs to be learned	reinforcing others' ideas of what needs to be learned
applying practical, immediate techniques	building repertoires of information for future reference

**Figure 1.2: Comparison of experiential and traditional education
(Fantini, Arias-Galicia and Guay (2001, p. 11))**

A further concept of use in non-formal education, which suggests that the learning is constructed for each individual through interactions among group members, is that of 'interactive learning'. Panitz (1999) initially distinguishes between collaborative and cooperative modes of interactive learning. He suggests that in cooperative learning the group interaction would be structured to "facilitate the accomplishment of a specific end product or goal," (p. 3) whereas in collaborative learning the individual group members would take more responsibility for their actions while respecting the contributions of their peers. He sees collaborative learning as a situation in which responsibility for the learning has shifted from the teacher as expert to the participants as learners. Panitz (ibid), however, suggests that these two models represent points on a continuum of

styles of interactive learning which might be affected by variation in the extent to which a particular situation or activity: is student centred versus teacher centred; motivation is extrinsic or intrinsic; knowledge is expected to be transmitted or constructed; the learning situation is loose or structured. He suggests that, in a school context where interactive learning strategies are used, it might be more likely to see cooperative activities (with a teacher planned learning outcome) in earlier years, while collaborative activities (with their more open potential) might be more useful in later stages of education. Percy-Smith (2012), also, argues for “contexts or spaces which are more facilitative and conducive to the development, articulation and support of individual and joint goals.” (p. 22). Likewise, Baraldi (2012), suggests that children and adults can be co-constructors of knowledge through interaction. Baraldi (ibid) and Iervse (2012) each offer examples of interactions in programmes of non-formal learning, noted in contexts where children’s or adolescents’ activities are facilitated by interaction with adult ‘leaders’. Iervse (ibid) suggests a generalised structure of interaction between the adult leaders and child participants (aged 11 years) in an activity as: adult explanation and/or question setting; children’s execution of the activity / providing answers; adult remarks, assessments, appreciations, etc. This suggests a type of interactive activity which seems to have relatively “closed”, leader-designed, expectations and might be considered “cooperative” in the terminology suggested by Panitz (1999). Examples of interactions from similar contexts, but in programmes for adolescents aged 14 or 15, cited by Baraldi (2012), demonstrate ways in which adults supported and encouraged the self-expression of the adolescents in reaching their own conclusions. These extracts might be seen to demonstrate, again using Panitz (1999) terminology, more collaborative forms of interaction.

One challenge in the use of interactive or experiential learning strategies is that of evaluation of the learning that takes place. Recognition and recording of the

knowledge, skills and values or attitudes developed as a result of experience might be quite subtle and would seem to require a range of strategies for evaluation as well as criteria against which such learning can be compared. Wolf (2001) discusses difficulties in maintaining consistency of expectation and standards when recording the achievements of learners in non-formal situations. She suggests that definitions of the assessment criteria in competence based evaluation of learning, however carefully written, are subject to individual interpretation and notes that perspectives on attainment can vary between assessors, despite good intentions for standardisation. She argues that variability in the context in which decisions on competence are made can make such decisions more difficult and notes that different tutors ascribed competence at different levels on a purpose designed, and supposedly standardised, task, (ibid, p. 9).

Wallace (1993) notes the difficulties of “efforts to develop a theoretical base which would clarify what is unique to experiential learning, what is actually learned experientially, or what might be worth learning,” (p. 18). Wallace (ibid) suggests that such questions reflect a traditional, academic perspective and posits that “something very different is happening in experiential learning, that distinctly different mental processes are involved,” (p. 18). He proposes that such different processes are related to the differing functions of the two hemispheres of the brain, arguing that traditional education might be facilitated by left hemisphere, organised activity in a linear fashion, while the right hemisphere is involved in “knowing and learning associated with the metaphoric and spatial mode of our consciousness,” (p. 23). Wallace (ibid) suggests that some kinds of learning might not be susceptible to rational explanation, although our principal means of explaining our learning is in (left hemisphere generated) words. In concluding that “communication is one of the necessary and accepted objectives of education,” (p. 24), Wallace (ibid) also notes that we expect to be able to communicate to others what has been learned through experience. He suggests that we need to

identify “which alternate kinds of communication or assessment might be appropriate in experiential learning,” (p. 24). The work described in this thesis (particularly in chapter 4, and the results presented in chapter 5), is an attempt to identify and evaluate the learning that can take place in a specific environment that uses experiential learning strategies, and, potentially, to answer the challenge articulated by Wallace.

The concept of learning through experience provides a background to the value of learning believed to take place in international exchange programmes or the year abroad required of British students taking courses in modern foreign languages. In particular, developing the ability to use experiences by reflecting on something which has happened, generalising to other cases and applying the learning to similar situations demonstrates openness to learning how to behave in another, similar, context. In considering ways in which to develop openness to experiences and interactions with others, Alred (2003) makes an analogy between therapy and study abroad, suggesting that each can inform self-understanding and personal change. He argues that working with students to develop their self knowledge and self awareness through thinking about cultural difference, in preparation for study abroad, can help to develop their self confidence and openness to the challenges and opportunities of living abroad, (p. 19). Alred (ibid) also compares the openness to others of a therapist with that of an intercultural person, stating: “Therapist and intercultural person alike are empathetic, cautious and respectfully curious when approaching the “other”,” (p. 22). Similarly, Fantini (2000) suggests that awareness “is pivotal to cross cultural entry and to acceptance by members of other cultures on their terms,” (p. 29). Tindale, Meisenhelder, Dykema-Engblade and Hogg (2004) extend this idea – and echo Berger and Luckmann’s (1968) terminology – when they suggest that group members learn from each other, through comparison and adjustment of behaviour, beliefs and attitudes, to the extent that they may develop a “shared construction of reality,” (p. 273).

Similarly, Wenger (1998) suggests that “participants in a community of practice contribute in a variety of independent ways that become material for building an identity,” (p. 271). Wenger argues that the construction of group relationships needs a shared commitment to learning and that this requires activities which truly engage those involved, plus recognition and use of their existing knowledge, while encouraging further development, and sufficient opportunity for participants to engage with each other and develop shared ways of action. He advocates the involvement of learning communities in activities which have influence outside the immediate group so that group members can “learn what it takes to become effective in the world,” (p. 274).

Using the experiential learning cycle proposed by Kolb (above) as a model for group activities, potentially going through several iterations, there seems to be a very practical basis for Wenger’s (1998) suggestion that “communities of practice can be thought of as shared histories of learning,” (p. 86). The concept of Community of Practice (ibid) and the related idea of learning through “legitimate peripheral participation” (Lave and Wenger, 1991), can, potentially, be linked to the situation of a student in an exchange programme learning about the culture in which s/he is immersed. It is suggested that these ideas can also be related to the functioning of organisations which engage in short term, international, educational experiences for young people, for example the case study organisation, CISV. In such a setting, the shared ethos of members of the organisation and the educational methods employed – often learned by new members through observation of, or engagement with, the more experienced members (peripheral participation) – provides the foundation for a group in which members can work together as a community with shared or common practices.

Before moving on to consider some practical situations for learning through experience, it is noted that terminology for the four phases of the learning cycle

proposed by Kolb is sometimes simplified to “Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply.” This is the case where it has been adopted as the model for learning from non-formal educational activities in the case study which is the main topic of this thesis, as explained in *Big Ed: Big Education Guide for Active Global Citizenship* (CISV, 2011), discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

1.2 Peer learning and group membership

In their early years most children are dependent on family members for role models and informal learning through personal relationships. However, mixing with peers in school and in other organisations (potentially those organisations that offer opportunities for non-formal learning) offers other relationships and influences on an individual. Edwards, Guzman, Brown and Kumru (2006) suggest that:

In many or most cultures, peers relative to adults play even more prominent roles in socialisation as children leave behind early childhood and move into middle childhood and adolescence. (p. 24)

Edwards et al (ibid) posit that adolescents may have flexibility to change alliances as they mature and define their personal goals or orientations. While arguing that “Children cooperatively co-construct their reality in a unique and selective manner through their peer interactions,” (p. 36) these authors also suggest that young people’s engagement in their own choices and their ability to organise their own experiences develops with age. Percy-Smith (2012), similarly, promotes the idea of children and young people contributing to decision making in everyday life, arguing that “children and young people’s participation cannot be understood in isolation from the social, cultural and political contexts in which it occurs,” (p. 15). Percy-Smith (ibid) also notes that contexts in which young people might have the opportunity to be involved in

decision making “are imbued with values, shaped, regulated and reinforced by formal (decision-makers, planners, police, etc.) and informal groups (community groups) in society,” (p. 15). The case study described later in this thesis would seem to reflect this situation in that it is organised within a non-governmental organisation that declares specific goals and formal organisational structures yet advocates the active participation by young members both within the organisational structures and in planning specific programme activities. As Percy-Smith (*ibid*) suggests, work in situations such as the case study, “is based on children and adults learning and participating together, both mediating and facilitating their own and each other’s participation,” (p. 21).

In participating in group activities, young people have the opportunity to develop friendships with peers or with those who share similar views on life around them. Cooper, Kelly and Weaver (2004) argue that group membership may “exert normative pressures on individuals” (p. 247), suggesting that this can lead to significant influence on attitude formation. Their discussion includes an assertion that group members can reinforce individual inclinations through discussion with other members of the group who have similar initial attitudes (p. 252). They also suggest that when changing group-related attitudes a young person would be likely to reduce their level of group affiliation so as to lessen any feeling of inconsistency. Smilansky (1991), similarly, noted adolescents’ concern to retain a positive self-image, suggesting that adolescence is an ego-centric stage in which the individual fears that other group members may ‘talk about him’ and becomes anxious that they might reject him. Smilansky (*ibid*) suggests that an individual should be able to identify how he is benefitting from a friendship and if this is improving his ability to deal with different situations. He argues that the individual “needs to ask himself how this [specific] friendship is related to his dreams of shaping his identity . . .” (p. 54). The ability to reflect on one’s self-image, suggested by Smilansky as appropriate to adolescents, is needed in order to be able to

consider one's learning in specific situations. It is suggested here that such a level of self-reflection and personal consideration of learning is more likely to be appropriate for adolescents at the age of 14 than for younger children.

1.3 Innovation in education

Having introduced different forms of education and learning in previous sections, the opportunities for non-formal learning in the case study organisation will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter. However, as the Predictive and Reflective Questionnaire (PaRQ) developed for this project is considered to be a potential innovation in evaluation of non-formal learning, the process of innovation in education should be considered. It is also noted that the Programme Director's Planning and Evaluation Form (PDPEF), which was the source of statements used in the PaRQ, had been introduced only three years prior to this study. It, too, might be considered to be innovative in combining planning and evaluation in one document. Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006) suggest that new tools may be needed for the use of emergent methods in research and it could be argued that PaRQ is one such tool. (Emergent methods will be discussed at section 3.3.1 in the methodology chapter.)

1.3.1 Innovations in formal, informal and non-formal education

Accounts of educational innovations, including new formats for evaluation, are most frequently related to innovation in formal situations for education such as schools or colleges (e.g Elliott, 2007; Kerins, 2010). However, many principles and strategies associated with bringing innovations to formal education could also be applied in non-formal education settings. According to Smith (2006), informal or non-formal

educators are “constantly called upon to make judgements, to make theory, and to discern whether what is happening is for the good,” (p. 1). This would seem to present a challenge to those who have professional training in methods of non-formal education and, especially, to those who undertake roles as non-formal educators on a volunteer basis with only minimal or short-term training.

The nature of innovation as a process is described by Hord (1981, 1987), Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin and Hall (1987) and in Hord and Sommers (2008). Hord et al propose a *Concerns Based Adoption Model* (CBAM), in which they outline six descriptive factors which they conclude should be taken into account in for successful innovation:

- Change is a process rather than a single event. Handing over an innovation may be an event; the process of implementing successful change may take several years.
- Change is undertaken by individuals. Each person involved should adopt the change in order for it to be really effective.
- Change is a highly personal experience. Each person is an individual and needs differ. These needs should receive attention in order to be sure that the innovation is seen to be relevant and is adopted by all.
- Change involves developmental growth. Feelings and skills may change and develop due to the stimulus of an innovation.
- Change is best understood in operational terms. Addressing the implications (practical and emotional) of a specific change for those involved will help participants to understand what is involved and how they can adapt their practice accordingly.
- The focus of facilitation should be on individuals, innovations and the context. Innovation is not a package of resources or materials, but involves the people who make the changes and their relationships with the context in which they are working. (adapted from Hord et al, 1987, p. 15)

While the *Stages of Concern* outlined above address the individual educator’s engagement with an innovation, there also needs to be some measure of the actual use of an innovation such as new resources or strategies in education. Hord et al (ibid) include an assessment of *Levels of Use* within their Concerns Based Adoption Model, (shown on the next page).

The Levels of Use fall into two groups: “Non-User”, levels 0 to III including no action with regard to the innovation, seeking initial information and active preparation, and, “User”, ranging from early adoption to active development of the innovation (levels IV to VI).

Level of Use	Behavioural Indices of Level
VI Renewal	User further develops or looks for improved alternatives in use of the innovation
V Integration	User trying to work with others who have adopted the innovation
IVb Refinement	User makes changes to improve outcomes
IVa Routine	User has established pattern of use but no changes
III Mechanical	Changing previous practice in order to incorporate innovation
II Preparation	Individual is actively preparing to use the innovation
I Orientation	Individual seeks information about the innovation
0 Non-use	No action taken regarding the innovation

Figure 1.3: Levels of Use: Typical Behaviour (adapted from Hord, 1987, p. 111)

Considering this model in an international situation where volunteers organise short term programmes of non-formal education, there can be additional challenges which are not fully taken into account. For example, there may be volunteers who have been successful in undertaking similar roles over several years and who are highly resistant to any change in practice that would be involved in adopting the innovation. Where individuals in leadership roles see an innovation as taking time which they would rather spend in an enjoyable aspect of the role for which they have volunteered there is a risk that compliance may be “mechanical” rather than undertaken with full involvement. It is, thus, suggested that innovations in educational programmes should be made as the result of perception of need, specific training on their use may be

needed, and that their use should be evaluated in order to assess their benefits both to participants and to the overall organisation.

1.4 Educational evaluation

The purpose of any evaluation should be made clear in order for it to be effective. Bennett (2003) reminds us that there are two differing reasons for evaluation of any process or innovation, either to consider the effectiveness of a current process or innovation after its implementation, or to review what is happening during the process of change with a view to improvement, (p7). These two forms of evaluation can be termed “summative” or “formative”. Patton (2002) offers a more concise distinction, stating that summative evaluations “judge overall effectiveness to inform major decisions about whether a program should continue”, whereas formative evaluations “aim to improve programs” (p. 218). Smith (2006) gives a little more in his definitions, stating that summative evaluation aims:

To enable people and agencies to demonstrate that they have fulfilled the objectives of the programme or project, or to demonstrate that they have achieved the standard required,

whereas, formative evaluation aims:

To enable people and agencies to make judgements about the work undertaken; to identify their knowledge and skills, and to understand the changes that have occurred in these; and to increase their ability to assess their learning and performance. (p. 4)

Another way of looking at formative evaluation is to consider it to be “developmental”, potentially directed towards empowering those involved in an innovation through their participation and engagement in the goals and objectives of the process. Patton (2002) suggests that formative evaluation will often contain a high proportion of qualitative information, specific to the context of the innovation or

programme, including case studies and descriptions of good practice. Summative evaluations, on the other hand, may contain more quantitative data, as end of project or process measurements, if appropriate. However, he also notes that such evaluation can be given greater depth through the inclusion of illustrative qualitative data, (p. 220). In these terms, the evaluation described in this thesis is formative rather than summative in that it explores the use both of a purpose designed tool for participant evaluation of learning and of an existing monitoring and reporting strategy.

1.4.1 Evaluation as a process

“The first and most basic aim of educational evaluation is to learn.”
(Kloosterman, Giebel and Senyuva, 2007, p. 15)

A working definition of evaluation as “. . . the systematic exploration and judgement of working processes, experiences and outcomes,” is suggested by Smith (2006, p. 2). He continues by suggesting that evaluation should look closely at the aims and values underlying these processes and the perceptions, needs and resources that might affect the outcomes. According to Storrs (2010) “outcomes” are longer term measures of change in attitudes, skills or behaviour, whereas the term “output” can be applied to what comes off the end of a production line so, in educational processes it may be seen as a shorter term measure. Storrs (ibid) quotes Halachmi and Boukaert (1995) as stating:

In the final judgement what counts is the quality of the outcome, not the process or results of a given procedure. Education and formal education for example are not the same. Formal education is results (output) while education is an outcome. (p. 12)

Storrs continues his argument by noting that some of the outcomes of development education (often in contexts of non-formal learning) might not be evident

in the short term but, in influencing attitudes, may only be apparent at a later date. A complicating factor in evaluating non-formal or informal education, which is often spread over an extended period of time, is that outcomes may have other causes or may not be directly attributable to one specific educational initiative. There may, also, be outcomes of non-formal education which are different from those originally intended so the evaluation process might need to take account of these. However, note should also be taken of the differences in starting point of those engaged in non-formal education. Where educational activities are part of the programme in a voluntary organisation, the participants might vary in age, maturity, intellectual ability, social background, nationality, or several other factors, and those who are leading the activity may, in Storrs (ibid) term, be “co-creators” along with the “co-learners” in their learning context, (p. 15). Each group or individual might have their own perspective on the desired outcomes of the educational activity, which would need to be taken into account in evaluation. Storrs (ibid) suggests that strategic plans for educational programmes should include ways to “foster and capture the richness of creativity and innovation in the learning environment,” (p. 15). He posits that the use of benchmarking and identification of best practice may have limitations as circumstances may be so different in various environments, and argues that they may even result in lowering aspiration to a level of compliance rather than encouraging the innovation and discovery, which are frequently considered to be intrinsic to non-formal education. In his conclusion he writes:

We need to focus on the essential learning opportunities afforded by participative measurement and evaluation. . . . we need to be creative, imaginative, and constantly reform and refine our evaluation systems. Most of all we need to fully engage all stakeholders in dialogue to co-create effective participative evaluation systems that serve stakeholder needs and ensure delivery of the desired outcomes. (p. 19)

Evaluation stakeholders and their needs are the focus of Bryson, Patton and Bowman (2011). They take a broad definition of stakeholders as “. . . individuals, groups, or organizations that can affect or are affected by an evaluation process and / or its findings,” (p. 1), suggesting that this broad definition can later be modified for specific purposes or aspects of an evaluation. Noting that various stakeholders may have divergent interests they also advise that “No evaluation can answer all potential questions equally well,” (p. 2). Indeed, the interests of policy makers, those with decision making responsibility, intended beneficiaries or those who may even be disadvantaged by a programme are quite diverse and may require different forms of attention. Bryson et al (ibid) consider the importance of involving stakeholders in evaluation and offer a selection of tools for their identification, then suggest analysis designed to assess how various stakeholders might contribute to an evaluation in the most productive manner. Working through steps of evaluation planning, evaluation design, data collection, analysis and decision-making / implementation they offer twelve tools from which an evaluation team could select those they feel would be useful in clarifying the identification and involvement of stakeholders for the purposes of an evaluation.

It was noted at the beginning of this section that Kloosterman, Giebel and Sanyuma (2007) suggest: “The first and most basic aim of educational evaluation is to learn.” They continue by stating: “The aim is the learning of all actors involved: their access to additional knowledge and to a new learning opportunity,” a somewhat similar claim to that made by Bryson et al (2011) in advocating the involvement of all stakeholders in an evaluation. The next step might then be to ask what the actors or stakeholders need to know; in other words, what is the purpose of the evaluation? Kloosterman, Giebel and Sanyuma(ibid) suggest five potential purposes for an evaluation: to improve planning; to take stock of achievements; to consolidate results;

to check if we met the interests of the funding institutions; to reinforce cooperation with partners. Models of evaluation which could be used for some of these various purposes will be discussed in the next section.

1.4.2 Models for evaluation projects

Patton (2003) states that “the focus in utilization-focussed evaluation is on intended use by the intended users,” (p. 223). He explains that users of any evaluation are more likely to take account of the findings if they have been involved in the processes of planning and executing the evaluation and, thus, have a sense of ownership. He argues that when the users or subjects of an evaluation are actively involved in planning and implementing an evaluation they are also being trained by this experience and are thus more aware of consequences and benefits of evaluation as a formative process. As different forms of evaluation may be relevant to various stakeholders, Patton makes it clear that utilization-focussed evaluation is designed for “explicitly identified primary users,” (p. 226) and suggests five steps in the utilization-focussed evaluation process:

- Intended users of the evaluation are identified, organised as a group and share decisions about the evaluation with the evaluator.
- The evaluator and the users commit to the intended use of the evaluation and so determine its focus and priorities.
- Users are involved in making decisions about the methods and design of the evaluation.
- After data has been collected and organised the users are involved in interpreting the findings and in making judgements and recommendations.
- Decisions involving the further dissemination of the results are made by those involved.

In discussing this process, Patton (ibid) notes that the information collected for the evaluation must be pertinent, useful, and understandable by the users; it should involve real issues and must be credible to decision makers. He suggests that a key skill of the

evaluator in this situation is to balance the needs and interests of key stakeholders so that the process maintains coherence and relevance.

The project described and analysed in the following chapters is one which is planned to be useful to the organisation involved. Results will be offered to the organisation and the Training and Quality Assurance Manager will be involved in deciding how the findings can best be used. Some of the findings may indicate a need for revisions to practices of collection of evidence of effects of participation or for reporting programme outcomes. This would involve collaboration with the evaluation specialist on the Training and Quality Assurance Committee and negotiation with members of the International Programmes Committee. Implications for training of volunteer leaders and staff members in international programmes would also have to be considered.

The emphasis on utility articulated by Patton (ibid) is also seen in the model suggested by Stufflebeam (2003), who, introducing his “Context, Input, Process and Product” (CIPP) model, states: “. . . evaluation’s most important purpose is not to prove, but to improve,” (p. 31). In this model, evaluation of the context would include assessment of needs, the problems to be investigated and the opportunities suggested. The ‘input’ phase would consider strategies, work plans and budget, while ‘process’ would involve monitoring, documenting and assessing activities. The ‘product’ evaluation would identify and assess short term and long term, intended and unintended outcomes. All aspects of the evaluation would be based in the core values of the enterprise, which are seen as central to the whole process. Using this model, Stufflebeam (2003) defines evaluation as:

. . . the process of delineating, obtaining, providing and applying descriptive and judgemental information about the merit and worth of some object’s goals, design, implementation, and outcomes to guide improvement decisions, provide

accountable reports, inform institutionalization / dissemination decisions, and improve understanding of the involved phenomena.” (p. 34)

Stufflebeam (ibid) notes that where both descriptive and judgemental information is needed this often implies a need to use both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection (discussed in the next section). Stufflebeam (ibid) suggests that use of this model in formative evaluations can contribute to summative evaluations, where these are required, by considering how needs were targeted and the ways in which goals reflected needs; by examining how the plans related to needs or any possible alternative approaches; by looking at how the plans were executed or modified; and, by noting results (whether positive or negative, intended or unintended). He also suggests that evaluations have both proactive and retroactive aspects, guiding improvements or ensuring accountability respectively. His conclusions link again to Patton’s (2003) work when he states “a program’s success should be judged on how well it meets the assessed needs of targeted beneficiaries,” (p. 58).

1.4.3 Methods for data collection and analysis

Discussion of methods to be used in evaluation or research frequently draws a distinction between *quantitative* and *qualitative* approaches. A quantitative approach to evaluation or research would, typically, involve the collection of numeric data or data that could be measured or coded for statistical analysis. This might involve work with a large sample in order to identify common factors, with an associated use of statistical techniques, and have the potential for generalisation to larger populations. Quantitative strategies are, also, often used in analysis of data obtained from purposely designed trials or experiments and are, thus, seen to be of particular use in *testing* for evidence. A qualitative approach, however, might consider a small number of cases, or, sometimes,

a single case, in more detail. Such an approach might require an individualised form of description or analysis for differing types of data such as transcriptions of interviews or conversation, texts (subject generated texts such as letters or essays; researcher generated texts such as field notes or records in a research diary), or visual images (commonly, photographs or videos). Dornyei (2007) argues that the interpretive nature of the qualitative approach means that “the researcher’s own values, personal history, and ‘position’ on characteristics such as gender, culture, class, and age become integral part of the inquiry.” (p. 38) Dornyei (ibid) further suggests that, among other uses, qualitative research can have particular value when used to *explore* the meaning of complex situations. He also posits that it can provide “rich material for the research report,” (p. 40). However, it must be noted that results generated through qualitative research might not be applicable to larger groups and that results might be subject to influence of the researcher’s personal perspectives, as noted above. The detailed, analytical work needed in qualitative analysis also means that it can be particularly time-consuming.

An approach to research used in social sciences which integrates elements of both quantitative and qualitative research is now commonly known as “Mixed methods research,” (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Dornyei, 2007). This general term can indicate the combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods in various ways for particular purposes. One such might be the “Development” function, demonstrated in work by Bachner & Zeuschel (1994) or Watson (2008) where analysis of interview (qualitative) data was used to generate items for questionnaire construction, the results from which were collated in a quantitative manner. Dornyei (ibid, p. 165) also suggests “Initiation” and “Expansion” functions for mixed methods, suggesting that the former may lead to the generation of new questions while the latter might develop

the scope of a study through the use of differing approaches. Qualitative and quantitative methods can also be used in a “complimentary” manner such that they explore different aspects of the same phenomenon. This might include a situation where qualitative methods are used for initial exploration of a phenomenon and the subsequent generation of questions which could be tested using quantitative methods. While quantitative and qualitative methods can be combined in various ways, Dornyei (2007) argues that they are most frequently combined in the use of questionnaires and semi-structured interviews (ibid, p. 169). However, in the study described in the subsequent chapters of the current work, qualitative and quantitative strategies were used to collect and examine data in different ways; quantitative data was collected through the use of Likert scale questionnaires and qualitative data was collected through the use of “narrative spaces” for written comments, in interviews, and, through observations.

1.4.4 Educational objectives and evaluation

In their discussion of models of educational evaluation, Kloosterman, Gieble and Senyuma (2007) consider evaluation against objectives, by competencies, by achievements, by performance and by process. In education, evaluation against previously set objectives is acknowledged practice. Objectives need to be clear, relevant and appropriate to the needs of participants (as well as to the subject or curricula work being considered) so that their achievement (or non-achievement) can be clear. However, the focus of objectives is, necessarily, quite narrow and in non-formal education the objectives may not encompass the whole of the desired learning outcome. Evaluation by competencies, such as the knowledge, skills and attitudes / values discussed below as aspects of intercultural competence and / or global learning, is

linked to the social context in which the competency is observed. Awareness in the individual or feedback from others can be a valuable stimulus to further development, although the transfer of specific competencies to other contexts cannot be guaranteed. Evaluation by achievement might be seen as similar to the concept of criterion referenced learning in formal education. Evaluation by achievement is linked to the concept of an 'indicator' which would describe the expected outcome in concrete terms. However, such indicators may lack clarity and may become objectives in themselves, (Wolf, 2001). Evaluation by performance encompasses observation of how individuals behave in certain circumstances. It is particularly useful in training contexts, for example in observing how workshop participants interact and take designated roles in a leadership training workshop. Evaluation by (measurable) outcomes in non-formal education poses particular problems due to the variation in so many contributory factors, as discussed in the previous section.

Having considered various forms of education and then looked at suggestions and possible models for evaluation in education, we will next consider ideas around the development of intercultural competence. In later sections the ideas of non-formal or informal education, discussed above, and the development of intercultural competence (discussed in the next section) will be brought together to consider the evaluation of programmes promoting such development.

1.5 Developing Intercultural Competence

In becoming intercultural, we develop a more progressive orientation towards life, with new roles for our individual selves in this increasingly integrated world. (Kim, 2001, p. 233)

The concept of Intercultural Competence, or Intercultural Communicative Competence, is defined in various ways, some of which will be discussed below, but is

key to ideals of a more integrated and progressive global society. Before embarking on this discussion, however, it is useful to consider the words ‘culture’ and ‘competence’.

Scollon and Scollon (1995) remind their readers that the English language uses ‘culture’ in two different ways: firstly, ‘high culture’, which focuses on artistic or intellectual achievements; secondly, in an anthropomorphic sense, stating “culture is any of the customs, worldview, language, kinship system, social organisation, and other taken-for-granted day-to-day practices of people which set that group apart as a distinctive group,” (p. 126). Scollon and Scollon (ibid) also remind us that “Cultures do not talk to each other, individuals do. In that sense, all communication is interpersonal communication and can never be intercultural communication,” (p. 125). The personal nature of communication, thus, underscores the need for appropriate education of individuals in communicating with others. One challenge of such work is the potential for over-generalisation, which can lead to the development of stereotypes. The value of personal contact with members of other cultures at a relatively early age as a means of avoiding the potential development of stereotypical ideas about those from other countries is one of the founding precepts of CISV, the organisation at the focus of this thesis, which will be introduced more thoroughly in chapter two.

“Competence,” Harden (2011) reminds his readers, is a term introduced by Chomsky almost fifty years ago to explain the language knowledge or abilities of an individual which is “hidden”, in contrast to the observable “performance”. Chomsky considered this competence as the innate ability to learn attributes of language and generate new utterances which conform to rules of the language being used. Dell Hymes (1972; reported in Zhu Hua, 2014a, p. 151) proposed the idea of “communicative competence”, as a term for using a language appropriately. Zhu Hua (ibid, p. 151) presents a model of components of communicative competence:

- Linguistic competence: production and interpretation of meaningful and grammatically correct utterances.
- Sociolinguistic competence: awareness of the impact of context such as setting, relationship between communication partners, intentions, etc. on the choice of language forms.
- Discourse competence: appropriate use of strategies at discourse level.
- Strategic competence: appropriate use of communication strategies to get meaning across and to understand others' messages.
- Socio-cultural competence: familiarity with the socio-cultural context of the target language.
- Social competence: both the will and the skill to interact with others, such as motivation, attitude, self-confidence, empathy and the ability to handle social situations.

Harden (ibid) suggests that the concept of communicative competence in intercultural situations has been replaced by that of “intercultural competence”, in which language is not explicitly mentioned but becomes implicit in the need to understand one culture and interpret it for members of another culture. It is noted here that this does not apply to all descriptions of intercultural competence, as will be discussed in some subsequent sections of this chapter.

Fantini, Arias-Galicia and Guay (2001) suggested that: “In today’s world, everyone needs the abilities that will ensure “effective and appropriate” interactions for dealing with people from other cultures,” (p. i). In apparent contrast, Jackson (2010) posits that in the modern world of “accelerating globalisation” (p. 24), the concepts of discrete cultural groups may no longer be appropriate. She suggests that current opportunities for intercultural contact promote “. . . the evolution of hybrid, fluid identities [which] compel us to acknowledge the dynamic and conflictual nature of culture today,” (p. 24). However, it could be argued that these “fluid identities”, in fact, necessitate the development of intercultural competence in order to communicate effectively with other members of the dynamic culture she proposes.

In the context of the work in this thesis, it is considered axiomatic that concepts of intercultural competence and learning remain important to the goals and methods of

organisations engaged in international exchange programmes, service learning, development education and education for global citizenship. The organisation in which the case study was based actively promotes the development of aspects of intercultural competence, as will be discussed in the next chapter.

1.5.1 Defining and describing intercultural competence

Intercultural competence is a term which is widely used but which has been difficult to define. It has been described in various ways, often according to the context in which it is being used, and there is considerable variation in the terminology adopted to suggest very similar ideas. Spencer-Oatey and Franklin, for example, refer to a “plethora of terms . . . used with little semantic rigour,” (2009, p. 51). They provide the respective author’s definitions for the terms: Communicative competence, Intercultural effectiveness, Intercultural communication competence, Transcultural communication competence, and, Intercultural action competence. Spencer-Oatey and Franklin write from a perspective based on ideas of interactive communication so they use the term “Intercultural Interaction Competence” (ICIC) to include many of the suggestions covered by other terms, (ibid, p. 53). They argue that communication takes place in specific contexts and that, while those engaged are motivated to communicate, for communication to be appropriate (to the other party) participants need to be able to “negotiate meaning, create understanding and repair misunderstanding,” (p. 55). They echo this when they state, more concisely, that for communication to be effective (in delivering the intended message) the interaction will involve “co-construction of meaning” as part of the process.

In arguing for flexibility in our understanding of intercultural competence, Bredella (2003), also, suggests that intercultural understanding may enable an

individual to see things from the perspective of “the other” (p. 39). This may, however, lead to a “third position” (p. 40) which transcends the two perspectives. This position of co-constructed meaning between participants in an interaction is often described as a “third space”, defined by Dooly (2011) as “a space between different cultures where participants must negotiate cultural differences,” (p. 328). Dooly suggests that “this space can promote intercultural learning by helping create awareness that one’s own perspective of the world is not the only one,” (p. 328).

The reciprocal awareness needed to co-construct meaning is implicit in Fantini’s (2005) definition of intercultural communicative competence (ICC). He defines ICC as “the complex of abilities needed to perform effectively and appropriately when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself,” (p. 1). He, subsequently, suggests that ICC requires abilities to “establish and maintain relationships”, “communicate with minimal loss or distortion”, and, “collaborate in order to accomplish something of mutual interest or need,” (p. 2). While suggesting the importance of these abilities as components of ICC, Fantini also notes that they are central to effective communication in one’s primary language and culture. Fantini also considers ICC to have four dimensions: awareness, knowledge, attitudes, and skills. Among these dimensions, he regards awareness, both of the other person’s perspective and self-awareness, as the central component, arguing that it is “enhanced through reflection and introspection,” (p. 2). As it is intrinsic to the reflective process, awareness can be seen both as supportive of the developing knowledge, skills and attitudes and as developing from them in a cyclic fashion. In addition to these four aspects of ICC, Fantini considers it valuable to learn an additional language. He argues that this further enhances awareness and facilitates “transcending and transforming how one understands the world” (p. 2) by challenging the learner to consider how one

“perceives, conceptualizes and expresses oneself; and, in the process, fosters the development of alternative communication strategies,” (p. 2).

Change in the way an individual understands the world, as suggested by Fantini, is also noted by Byram (2003) when he suggests that, “Intercultural competence requires a change of perspective on self and other, on the world of one’s socialisation and the worlds one meets through language learning . . .” (p. 13). Although the terms “intercultural competence” and “intercultural communicative competence” are often used interchangeably, Byram distinguishes between them by using the former term for the ability to communicate with others from a different culture using one’s own language, while he uses the latter to refer to communication with people from another culture in a foreign language (Zhu, 2014a). Byram’s model of ICC is of particular value in the way in which he details the behaviour relevant to ICC attitudes, knowledge and skills as a range of five, potentially observable, *savoirs*:

- Attitudes: curiosity, openness, readiness to suspend belief about one’s own and other cultures (*savoir etre*).
- Knowledge: of social groups and their practices in one’s own and the interlocutor’s culture; of social and individual interaction (*savoirs*).
- Skills of interpreting and relating: ability to interpret or explain a document or event in the other culture and relate it to own culture (*savoir comprendre*).
- Skills of discovery and interaction: ability to learn about a culture and cultural practices and to use this learning in communication and interaction (*savoir apprendre / savoir faire*).
- Critical cultural awareness / political education: ability to evaluate critically specific practices and products in one’s own and other cultures and countries (*savoir s’engager*). (after Byram, 2003a, p. 63)

Contributing to the Common European Framework of Reference for Language Teaching and Learning (CEFR), Byram (1997) was a member of the group that developed the INCA Framework of Intercultural Competence. This framework specifies Motivation, Skills/Knowledge and Behaviour for the six areas: Tolerance of ambiguity, Behavioural flexibility, Communicative awareness, Knowledge discovery,

Respect for otherness, and, Empathy. Descriptors of three levels of competence in each of these areas, Basic, Intermediate, and Full, were drawn up for use both in self-assessment and in observer assessment. Assessment of ICC, including the use of the INCA framework, will be discussed in more detail in a subsequent section.

Byram's model of ICC was developed in an educational context, working with learners of modern foreign languages. However, the widely used Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS), developed in the USA over twenty years ago by Milton J. Bennett and Janet M. Bennett, has often been seen as applicable for those who may be working or living overseas.

1. Denial of difference	The inability to construe cultural difference. Indicated by benign stereotyping (well-meant but ignorant or naive observations) and superficial statements of tolerance. May sometimes be accompanied by attribution of deficiency in intelligence or personality to culturally deviant behavior. Tendency to dehumanize outsiders.
2. Defence against difference	Recognition of cultural difference coupled with negative evaluation of most variations from native culture-the greater the difference, the more negative the evaluation. Characterized by dualistic us/them thinking and frequently accompanied by overt negative stereotyping. Evolutionary view of cultural development with native culture at the acme. A tendency towards social/cultural proselytizing of "underdeveloped" cultures.
3. Minimization of difference	Recognition and acceptance of superficial cultural differences such as eating customs, etc., while holding that all human beings are essentially the same. Emphasis on the similarity of people and commonality of basic values. Tendency to define the basis of commonality in ethnocentric terms (i.e., since everyone is essentially like us, "just be yourself").
4. Acceptance of difference	Recognition and appreciation of cultural differences in behavior and values. Acceptance of cultural differences as viable alternative solutions to the organization of human existence. Cultural relativity. The beginning of ability to interpret phenomena within context. Categories of difference are consciously elaborated.
5. Adaptation to difference	The development of communication skills that enable intercultural communication. Effective use of empathy, or frame of reference shifting, to understand and be understood across cultural boundaries.
6. Integration of difference	The internalization of bicultural or multicultural frames of reference. Maintaining a definition of identity that is "marginal" to any particular culture. Seeing one's self as "in process."

Figure 1.4: Bennett's Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity
(Bennett, 1993)

In Bennett's (1993) six stage model, shown above, stages one to three are described as 'ethnocentric' and stages four to six as 'ethnorelative'. Bennett suggests that it is possible to move from one stage to another in developing intercultural sensitivity, potentially progressing from ethnocentric to a more ethnorelative stage, although the potential for regression is recognised.

The models outlined above take somewhat differing perspectives on intercultural competence. Bennett's *Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity* is concerned with an individual's stage of development of intercultural awareness and personal positioning in intercultural contexts, while the models proposed by Byram and by Fantini place more emphasis on the aspect of communication. Byram's model was developed in the context of foreign language teaching, in which context the acquisition of a modern foreign language is implicit. Similarly, the INCA model is designed for use by or with young people living in a society where they usually have to use a taught language. Fantini, (2005) makes explicit the ideal of learning of another language as a valuable way in which to see the world from a different perspective and a prompt to the self-reflection which can lead to greater awareness of one's own cultural background.

It was noted earlier that Fantini, Arias-Galicia and Guay (2001) discussed the development of abilities to ensure "effective and appropriate" intercultural interactions. Similarly, Janet M. Bennett (2009) suggests that there is

. . . an emerging consensus around what constitutes intercultural competence, which is most often viewed as a set of cognitive, affective, and behavioural skills and characteristics that support effective and appropriate interaction in a variety of cultural contexts. (p. 122)

In her discussion of models of ICC, Zhu Hua (2014a) notes the regular use of similar terms when she states: "Two key terms, appropriateness and effectiveness, occur frequently in the definition of ICC as its purposes and criteria," (p. 151). Zhu Hua

(ibid) subsequently reports that a study documented by Deardorff (2004) found the most highly rated definition of ICC to be “the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on one’s intercultural knowledge, skills and attitudes,” (p. 151).

Fantini (2005), as noted earlier, describes ICC as having ability in three areas (or domains): to establish or maintain relationships; to communicate with minimal loss or distortion; and, to collaborate in order to accomplish something of mutual interest or need, (p. 2). *CISV Core Educational Principles* (1998), discussed in more detail at section 2.3.4, below, note the correspondence between these areas and the original aims of CISV, clarified as: “the development of cross - cultural friendships; communication among members of differing cultures; and, leadership for peace (i.e. development of leadership / co-operation skills to benefit society),” (ibid, p. 6). This, therefore, is the model of ICC which forms the background to the construction of goals and their indicators which have, subsequently, been developed for use in CISV programmes, and is the perspective on ICC adopted for use in later chapters of this thesis.

1.5.2 Assessing intercultural competence

Spencer-Oatey and Franklin (2009) provide a list of 77 instruments for the assessment of aspects of intercultural attitudes, preference or competences. Most of these are self-scored assessments, asking the individual to mark his/her position on a rating scale for each item or statement. Many of these instruments were developed to help in the selection of people for posts abroad or to identify abilities which it was felt they needed to develop in order to work in a different culture. Such questionnaires can be useful in helping the user to become more self-aware or aware of cultural values so that he/she, or a mentor, can identify where further development is needed. They are,

thus, often seen as a diagnostic tool in this context. Usefully, Spencer-Oatey and Franklin (ibid, pp. 311-313) have classified the assessments in their list according to the main purpose of the instrument. They also remind readers that the instrument to be used should be selected according to the user's purpose, should be reliable (test-retest over time) and should be valid (measure what it is intended to measure). Other factors in the selection of an instrument might include the need to use a third party assessor, time or cost of administration, or training / licensing needed to use specific instruments. To illustrate the range of instruments available we can consider three which have differing emphases.

The *Intercultural Development Inventory* (IDI) is a 50 item questionnaire which is claimed to measure intercultural competence. Completing this questionnaire gives evidence from which the individual or a group is assigned to one of the six stages of Bennett's (1993) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS). In this model, described in the previous section, there are three stages of decreasing ethnocentricity: Denial of difference; Defence against difference; Minimisation of difference; and three stages classified as ethnorelative: Acceptance of difference; Adaptation to difference; Integration of difference. Bennett (2009, p. 6) suggests that the IDI can be used to assess the effectiveness of an intercultural programme using a pre / post programme research design. Thorpe (2009) used the IDI in this way to attempt to evaluate change in intercultural sensitivity during a three week international service programme in Canada. She found that only two (25%) of her eight research subjects advanced to the next stage of intercultural competence in this short programme while the others consolidated their score. She noted, "The groups' orientation towards difference was reinforced by their experience in [this service programme]. The post-IDI indicates that as a group, participants relied on similarities to adapt to cultural differences within the group . . ." (p. 3). These findings accord with those noted by

Bennett (2009) when he suggests that although scores for individuals can be interpreted from their distribution of responses, when scores for group members are summarized some individual differences may be obscured. Considering these findings, he suggests that the IDI “should be used cautiously and only with other measures, such as the qualitative data reported in descriptive studies, to discover the overall intercultural sensitivity of groups.” (ibid, p. 6)

The IDI has been criticised as potentially eliciting socially desirable responses, rather than those which are truly honest, from individual respondents. However, this effect has not been found to be significant. The IDI was initially devised for use in USA and, while it has been translated for some other contexts, use in other languages and cultures has proved more problematic, posing the suggestion that it may be “culture-centred”, (Spencer-Oatey and Franklin, p. 284). Of relevance to the case study reported later in this thesis, Jackson (2009) noted that students using the IDI over-estimate their intercultural sensitivity and Bennett (2009) notes that some of his subjects have done the same in suggesting that they are becoming more interculturally competent while still having a high profile of ethnocentrism.

In contrast to the paper based, self-reporting nature of the IDI, the Intercultural Competence Assessment (INCA), devised for use in connection with the Common European Framework of Reference for Language Teaching and Learning (CEFR), uses criterion referenced observation of behaviour as well as self-evaluation. Motivation, skills and knowledge, and behaviour in the areas of tolerance for ambiguity, behavioural flexibility, communicative awareness, knowledge discovery, respect for otherness, and, empathy have been described. An individual’s written responses to critical incidents and observations of his / her behaviour in group exercises can be compared with descriptors at three levels in order to evaluate his / her intercultural competence. As

with other forms of competence-based assessment, it is possible that there may be inconsistencies in behaviour in different situations or with different co-participants as well as variation in observer judgement. Any of these factors could result in problems of reliability of such an instrument, (Wolf, 2001). However, the assessors have been trained to use the INCA, particularly in youth learning and mobility settings, and it has been adopted as a component of language and intercultural competence assessment portfolios in Europe. Interestingly, in European youth mobility programmes or other situations where CERF is appropriate, the use of an autobiography or 'journaling' strategy (Byram et al, 2009) incorporates a personal, reflective, element which can be valuable in revealing the author's perspective on an intercultural encounter.

In his description of intercultural competence Fantini (2005) identifies four levels:

1. Educational traveller: possibly involved in a short term exchange programme;
 2. Sojourner: longer duration, e.g. 'year abroad', internship, service programme of 3 to 9 months;
 3. Professional: working in intercultural / multicultural organisations, e.g. staff of international organisations or institutions;
 4. Intercultural / multicultural speaker: level needed by trainers, educators or those advising international students.
- (Adapted from Fantini, 2005, p. 2)

Fantini (2000) uses these levels in the Assessment of Intercultural Competence (AIC) YOGA (Your Objectives, Guidelines and Assessment) Form. This is a self or observer assessment form in which the recorder can mark their level of agreement with each statement on a six point scale. As indicated in the title, it can be used as an initial evaluation from which to set objectives and later used as an evaluation check or guide to progress. In this sense it can become a developmental tool, creating self-awareness (a component of Fantini's model of ICC) on which the aspiring individual can build future development.

The three assessment tools described above demonstrate the argument that ICC is a developing competence. Fantini classifies this development in four stages, closely linked to linguistic competence; Bennett suggests six stages of intercultural sensitivity from “Denial of difference” to “Integration of difference”; INCA observations may vary in different contexts. In each of these, to use the analogy of a journey, one may always be travelling towards the destination, but sometimes going in reverse, taking a detour or looping round part of the route again.

Some contexts for the potential development of ICC, are discussed in more detail in subsequent sections, as is the innovative strategy used to evaluate specific aspects of ICC in the case study project described in chapter four. This strategy was particularly designed for use in evaluation of learning in a non-formal, intercultural education programme for age 14 years. However, at this point it is useful to consider some of the range of intercultural educational opportunities and the concepts of experiential learning used in such settings in order to provide more background to the case study.

1.5.3 Intercultural learning in school or formal education settings

A principal means of intercultural learning in school or formal education is through the learning of modern foreign languages and associated cultural dimensions of these subjects, although there may also be elements of intercultural content in other areas of the curriculum such as geography or citizenship education. In a discussion of the potential for acquiring intercultural competence in school subjects, Byram (1997) argued that the teaching of modern foreign languages “has the experience of otherness at the centre of its concern, as it requires learners to engage with both familiar and unfamiliar experience through the medium of another language,” (p.vii). Subsequently, Byram, Nichols and Steven (2001) develop this argument when they suggest that

learning about the culture of other members of a society while learning their language can facilitate comparison with their own values, beliefs and behaviour and thus encourage learners in further reflection on, or investigation of, their own culture.

The concept of a culture as the “shared beliefs, values and behaviours of a social group” is used by Byram (2003a, p. 50) in his discussion of an individual’s ability to transcend cultures. He uses ideas discussed by Berger and Luckmann (1968) and suggests that, although primary socialisation may be to one culture, it is possible to undergo secondary socialisation into other cultural groups and to become an accepted member of several different groups. However, he notes that people from one culture or language group who live in another country and undergo late acquisition of this second culture may not be as successfully integrated as those who have a dual primary acculturation. Byram (2003a) suggests that intercultural learning is important in developing the ability to see relationships between cultures and, in practical ways, to be able to mediate between them. Fougere (2000) also suggests that an individual’s cultural identity may become more relevant when confronted by another culture and that this can lead to some introspection which will promote further learning.

Byram’s model of ICC, as noted in section 1.5.1, above, was developed in the context of foreign language teaching and thus seen to be of particular relevance to learners of modern foreign languages in schools, is widely discussed (see, for example, Spencer-Oatey and Franklin (2009, pp. 65-69); Zhu, (2014a, pp 151-153)). It has also been found useful in analysis of learning in other educational contexts such as that described by Jackson (2009), discussed in section 1.5.6, below.

Starkey (2003), too, considers the value of language teaching and learning as contributing to education for democratic citizenship. However, he suggests that the learning about culture associated with language learning may still be constrained by the

content of course texts which, frequently, place the learner in the position of a tourist or consumer, (p.71). He argues that teaching resources should be designed so that language learning could become a situation for intercultural learning and for the development of respect for human rights as the basis for democratic citizenship.

Arguing that some young people will need to move home to other places and “learn to live in new cultural social, economic and linguistic contexts,” (p. 196) while others will encounter members of diverse cultural groups in their home area, Sussmith (2007), also, notes the needs of young people, growing up today in multi-cultural societies, to appreciate the differing values, cultures and language groups that they experience, although these may not be mentioned within the formal school curricula. She suggests that, in order to become a more cooperative global community, we need to get to know one another better through an exploration of differences and similarities, and argues that: “Most of all it means recognising our interdependency and the necessity of mutual respect and tolerance,” (p. 196). Sussmith (ibid) suggests that this challenge needs to be met by the development of intercultural skills in order to “become active and productive members of our global society,” (p. 201). While some of these skills may be developed, in English schools, through engagement with aspects of the Citizenship Curriculum (QCA 2007), which will be discussed further in section 1.5.9, below, there is significant potential for their development in less formal contexts, some of which will be addressed in the next section.

1.5.4 Developing intercultural competence through experience, non-formal or informal education

It was noted in the previous section that late acquisition of a second culture may not be as successful as acquisition of two languages and cultures simultaneously, where this is possible. Fantini (2002) further explains this by arguing that, even before starting

school, young children have exposure to thousands of hours of their home culture, to which they are open and through which they form their own identity. In contrast, an adult or older teenager may only have limited exposure to a 'new' culture, and will already have "... a fully developed way of understanding the world ... [which] influences and mediates subsequent learning," (p. 17). Fantini discusses the value of older students spending extended periods of time living in another culture as a stimulus to appreciation of "both the diversities and commonalities that exist among all human beings," (p. 19). Such a learning situation is not without challenge according to Shaules (2007), who suggests that there may be a dissonance between the cultural competencies of an individual and what is needed in a new environment. Shaules (ibid) emphasises the sub-conscious nature of this when he states: "... the greatest difficulties in intercultural learning come primarily from cultural differences that are out of awareness," (p23). Shaules (ibid) also argues that cultural awareness is not sufficient, but, rather, that it is necessary to appreciate differences at a deeper level so as to be able to use this acceptance "as a base to build relationships and develop communication skills," (p. 226) in a different culture. He proposes a framework of resistance, acceptance and adaptation as the basic process of intercultural learning, but emphasises that this should be applied at a deep level, and not just superficially, so that there is a firm foundation for building successful intercultural relationships.

International exchange and intercultural programmes for young people, whether long term study abroad or short term programmes of non-formal education activities (as discussed in the case study at the heart of this thesis), may be promoted with the stated aim to develop intercultural competence in their participants. The outcomes of some of these programmes are discussed in this and the immediately following sections.

It might be suggested (e.g. Iervese, 2012) that changing cultural context to live in another culture can place an individual in the position of “legitimate peripheral participation,” (Lave and Wenger, 1991). In the time scale of a long term study abroad programme, the contact with a different culture may lead to acculturation of the individual. Using the attitudes, knowledge and skills suggested in Byram’s model, above, with the reflection and introspection advocated by Fantini, creates an interactive situation in which youth participants in such a long term programme can move along a path towards becoming intercultural. As Lave and Wenger (1991) suggest “the move of learners toward full participation in a community of practice does not take place in a static context. The practice itself is in motion,” (p. 117). Sen Gupta (2003) suggests that intercultural competence, developed through such experience, should be seen in abilities such as:

- The ability to move easily between different cultural systems,
 - Tolerance of ambiguity,
 - Empathy,
 - Respect,
 - The ability to respond to others in non-judgemental and evaluative ways, and,
 - The ability to give and receive information about cultural systems.
- (p. 167)

Sen Gupta also notes that in reflecting on the differences experienced, an individual should become more aware of their own cultural identity, an idea noted by Fantini (2000) and other authors mentioned in the previous section. She posits that intercultural teachers (and, by extension, adults responsible for planning learning activities in non-formal, intercultural education) will need to use “less traditional methods in order to evaluate the more subjective outcomes of intercultural competence,” (p. 167). The study reported in this thesis explores the use of an innovative format for evaluation of individual learning in an intercultural context, a Predictive and Reflective Questionnaire combined with self-reflections on learning

noted in narrative spaces. It also reports on adult leaders' perceptions of the use of the existing evaluation strategy for programmes of which the case study is one example.

Before exploring the case study in detail it will be useful to review other situations for intercultural experiences. This will be, particularly, to consider their potential as settings for the acquisition of intercultural competence.

1.5.5 Study abroad

The development of intercultural competence through participation in study abroad programmes was mentioned in section 1.5.1, above. However, it is useful to consider some of the evidence for such development and the ways in which the evidence has been obtained. An early study of the effects of study abroad was that undertaken by Hansel (1985) as *The Impact of a Sojourn Abroad: A study of secondary school students participating in a foreign exchange programme*. From studying the results of a survey of several hundred former AFS (American Field Service) exchange participants, and comparison with a control group of applicants who had not been able to participate in the programme, Hansel found five factors which she suggested were most related to the overseas experience: awareness and appreciation of the host country and culture, foreign language appreciation and ability, understanding other cultures, international awareness, and, adaptability. In addition, she identified five further variables which showed some relationship to participation in the programme: non-materialism, awareness and appreciation of home country and culture, independence / responsibility for self, communication with others, and, critical thinking. Commenting on her findings, Hansel noted of the participants that "While they gain specific information about the country they visit they also show marked increases in their

understanding of other cultures generally and in their awareness of international concerns,” (p. 228).

Comparing results from those in her sample who had a full year abroad with those who had only a two month overseas stay, Hansel found that although there was less development of additional language ability and appreciation of the host country / culture in the latter group, their changes on other variables were similar.

Almost twenty years later Hammer (2004) compared responses from 1500 AFS participants in long-term (ten month) study abroad exchanges with those of 600 “best friends” as a control group. His findings suggested that the exchange students showed:

- increased intercultural competence,
- increased knowledge of the host culture,
- increased fluency in the language of the host culture,
- less anxiety in interacting with people from different cultures,
- increased friendship with people from different cultures, and,
- greater intercultural networks. (p. 3)

Hammer (ibid) suggested that comparison of before and after scores on the IDI (discussed in section 1.5.2, above) showed “a significant impact with students that began the program in more ethnocentric (less culturally competent) stages and . . . little impact on students who begin the program in the more developed stage of minimization,” (p. 4). This resonates with one of Hansel’s (1985) findings, that changes in scores, pre-test to post-test, for students who had previous experience of travel abroad were not as great as the changes in scores of students for whom the exchange was their first overseas experience.

A detailed study of the effects of bi-lateral Youth for Understanding (YFU) exchange (for students in Germany and USA) was conducted in two phases by Bachner and Zeuschel (1994, 2009). They were particularly interested in any effects on the subsequent lives of participants which might be ascribed to learning and development

during the exchange programme. In their initial study, interviews with five participants in each country from each of the four decades covered in the initial study (20 interviews in each of USA and Germany) provided rich, qualitative data from which specific hypotheses were developed and used in the construction of a questionnaire. The questionnaire was then sent to 550 former YFU participants in USA and 637 former German participants. A control group of friends or nominated peers was used in this study. Comparison of questionnaire results, coupled with outcomes of the interviews, led Bachner and Zeutschel (1994) to suggest that their respondents saw participation in a YFU exchange as resulting in “. . . meaningful, long-lasting changes in knowledge, attitudes, skills and behaviours,” (p. 37). They also suggested that a general effect of the changes brought about by the exchange led to “an overall attitude of internationalism that would seem to have positive implications for enhancing world peace and cooperation,” (p. 37).

In their follow-up study, *Students of Four Decades*, undertaken fifteen years later, Bachner and Zeutschel (2009), conducted in-depth interviews with 15 former YFU participants in Germany. They used this opportunity to explore participants’ motivations for participation, their perceptions of their learning and any ways in which they felt that their later life had been affected by this participation. Bachner and Zeutschel (ibid) identified eight criteria which they considered to be measures of the success of the YFU exchange experienced earlier by these participants. They also suggest that these criteria, shown on the next page, might be relevant to research on intercultural exchange in general.

One of Bacher and Zeutchel’s (ibid) criteria which is particularly relevant to the study in this thesis is the first, concerning personal changes as perceived and reported by individual participants. The subjectivity of retrospective accounts is noted, but the

authors argue that former YFU participants particularly suggest that their exchange experience had an impact on their perceptions of independence, level of confidence, personal responsibility, and tolerance of differences.

1. Individual Changes	Self-perceived alterations in one's attitudes, behaviours, and skills presumably induced by the exchange experience.
2. German - U.S. Perspective/ Involvement (Bilateralism)	The degree to which one's orientation since the exchange has been host country specific.
3. Multilateral Perspective/ Involvement (Globalism)	The degree to which one's orientation since the exchange has been other than or in addition to a host country-specific emphasis.
4. Exchange-Related/ International Activities	The degree to which one participated in subsequent exchange programmes or otherwise involved oneself in international relations and exchange.
5. Educational or Professional Directions Attributed to Exchange	The influence of the exchange upon one's academic and career choices and plans.
6. Utilization and Ripple Effects	The degree to which one actually has applied the results of exchange and influenced others' attitudes, behaviours, etc. based on the results of exchange.
7. Evaluation of the YFU Program	Assessment of YFU's program content and administration.
8. Overall satisfaction	One's feelings about the experience and the degree to which one assessed the exchange as fundamentally beneficial.

Figure 1.5: Criteria for success of an international exchange experience (Bachner and Zeutschel, 2009, p. 110)

In their discussion of "Ripple effects" (criterion 6), Bachner and Zeutschel (ibid, pp. 139-140) also note that several of their interviewees continue to be involved in intercultural mediation such as health work with Turkish women or teaching in a school where there are children from several nations. The longer term reflections reported in this 2009 study seem to support the statement in Bachner and Zeutschel's conclusion to their earlier (1994) report, that:

The results of this study offer many reasons to strengthen the belief that major benefits in personal learning, cross-cultural understanding, and subsequent action really do occur as a result of the exchange experience. (p. 44)

A study which has some similarities to that of Bachner and Zeuschel (ibid) in that it was conducted several years after the original 'year abroad' is reported by Alred and Byram (2002). These authors discuss the outcome of interviews with twelve former students of modern foreign languages who had earlier spent a year in study abroad as part of their undergraduate degree programme. They suggest that an important aspect of the time abroad was life with a host family and posit that the time abroad had been one of a temporary re-socialisation into the culture, practices and beliefs of the host situation, which they term 'tertiary socialisation'. Alred and Byram (ibid) suggest that teaching a foreign language incorporates the ability to mediate between one's home language / culture and the language / culture being taught in order to facilitate pupil learning. They noted that interviewees who had not continued into teaching modern foreign languages still used skills they had learned in the year abroad, citing examples of a primary school teacher who analysed her teaching strategies against linguistic skills she felt she had learned in her studies and of a former student, then working as an office manager in a law firm in Brussels, who felt that she often used mediation skills, developed as a student, in her current work.

The examples discussed above are from studies of long-term exchange or study abroad. Most of these were for ten months to a year although some of Hansel's subjects took part in exchanges of only two months. However, all of these note changes in the participants, particularly in their ability to "... interact and understand each other on a basis of mutual respect, on a basis of intercultural competence," (Byram, 2003b, p. 13). Other authors have noted gains in intercultural competence during short term international programmes and some of these reports will be discussed in the next section.

1.5.6 Short term intercultural projects

In her dissertation, *The Impact of a Sojourn Abroad*, discussed above, Hansel (1985) suggested that the long term programmes on which her study was based may have provided extended opportunities for learning which contrasted with short-term, sometimes touristic, experiences that might only allow travellers to see what they anticipated and may actually confirm pre-existing perceptions or stereotypes. However, it has been found that short term exchange or study abroad can be valuable to the personal development and growth in intercultural competence of individuals. Stitsworth and Sugiyama (1990) undertook a study involving Japanese teenagers who participated in one month home-stays in 26 states of the USA. Responses to pre- and post-experience questionnaires, completed by 426 participants, 285 members of a control (non-travelling) group and the parents of all involved, suggested that after the exchange the participants had become more sociable, extroverted, responsible, spontaneous, self-confident, individualistic, competitive and independent. Stitsworth and Sugiyama (ibid) summarise their findings and also note that the experience abroad provides participants with a perspective from which they can view their 'home' culture, when they state:

This research and a number of other . . . studies document that exchange participants show greater personal growth than similar youth who do not have the opportunity to travel abroad. Experiences abroad present unfamiliar challenges that require individuals to develop and assimilate new behavioural responses. These new responses bring about progression through the sequential stages of personal development. Thus, immersion in a foreign culture provides a touchstone against which returned travellers can view their own society and the values that shape their lives. (p. 10)

This statement is comparable with Fantini's (2006) comment on the intra-personal effect of participation in an intercultural programme: "In the end, self-awareness is perhaps the most powerful change that takes place and something that continues to serve participants for the rest of their lives," (p56).

In a somewhat different form of study abroad, where students from USA travelled to the Czech Republic, but took part in a business studies programme coordinated by their home university faculty members, Zamastil-Vondrova (2005) reported that study abroad, even for less than four weeks, was perceived as beneficial by the student participants. Misconceptions of their host culture were rectified while students gained confidence in travelling, interacting in social situations with people who used a different language, and, exploring a new environment. Zamastil-Vondrova (ibid) noted that this period of study abroad provided “experience-based learning opportunities” (p. 48). She concluded that the research provided strong evidence that the experience of study abroad, “had a lasting impact on a student’s artistic and linguistic awareness . . . in addition to enhancing their professional skills and competencies.”(p. 49)

A more immersive study experience was organised by Vadino (2005) for students in her sociology class. She took a group of students of differing ages and from diverse ethnic backgrounds for a five week study trip to Costa Rica. Group members were hosted in local family homes, learning informally through this experience but taking part in classroom based work and doing their own research projects in a more formal context during their study abroad. Vadino (ibid) notes the way in which group members learned about their similarities while experiencing the different life-style and taking the opportunity to become immersed in the host culture during this short time. She reports that at the end of the study period, after a month in host families followed by a week together, the students had developed a more cohesive group identity while gaining an appreciation of another culture and opening their eyes to the concept of global citizenship.

A retrospective follow-up study involving a structured sample of participants from ten of the national associations which had been active during the first forty years of

CISV (Watson, 2008) used a questionnaire developed from three sources: shared comments identified in interviews with a small number of early participants; questions prompted by findings of the earlier follow-up study (Wright and Allen, 1969); and, the educational goals of CISV, as published in *CISV's Educational Principles* (1998). The multi-cultural, and often multi-lingual, nature of CISV programmes, which differs from the bi-national nature of many exchange programmes, was specifically noted, as was the young starting age (11 years) for intercultural programmes in CISV. The development of long-term, international friendships was seen as a valuable outcome of these programmes. It was also noted that approximately one third of former participants had, later, taken additional, voluntary language courses, suggesting a continuing interest in intercultural communication; and that a high proportion of former participants (up to 44% of the Japanese group of respondents) had chosen to study abroad. It was posited that:

Attitudes and awareness developed through CISV transfer into the personal life of participants, as do leadership and cooperative abilities . . . respondents to the questionnaires repeatedly emphasised a belief in the impact of CISV experiences on their personal development. (ibid, p. 30)

Reporting on situations which differ from the multi-cultural programmes of CISV in both duration and complexity, Ilg (2013) notes significant learning through intercultural experiences in bilateral camps in Europe. His sample included over 5000 participants, who attended one to two week international camps in Germany, Poland and France, and who responded to questionnaires designed to compare their perceptions of learning with the goals set by their (over 700) group leaders. He notes improvements in foreign language proficiency and increased interest in learning other languages, plus an interest in having a longer stay (potentially three or more months) in the partner country. Comparing results from these bi-lateral international camps with those from similar youth camps where the participants were only from Germany, he noted the

impact of the intercultural programme experiences and suggested that this supports the idea that:

[I]nternational youth encounters make a much bigger contribution to understanding strangers because of a direct contact with different countries and cultures than group travel with adolescents from the same country . . . (p. 195)

In contrast to the studies discussed above, which involved a large number of participants in responding to questionnaires, Jackson (2009, 2011) presents ethnographic studies of the experiences and development of undergraduate students from Hong Kong who undertook a short term (five week) residence in England. Her 2011 article reports a case study of a student who experienced significant culture shock during the first week of her exchange to the West Midlands but who took opportunities to experience aspects of the local culture that were in contrast to her home life. Jackson suggests that this student was more realistic than some of her colleagues in respect to her intercultural sensitivity (p. 92). However, by volunteering to work in a charity shop, the student had opportunities for interaction with local people and was thus able to extend her range of intercultural experience. In reflecting on this case study Jackson argues that:

A short-term sojourn can have a significant impact on participants *if* critical reflection and experiential learning (e.g. through ethnographic research, service learning) are embedded into the programme *and* the individuals themselves are receptive to personal expansion and committed to enhancing their intercultural knowledge and skills. (p. 92)

This, again, notes the importance of reflection and self-awareness, as suggested in models of experiential learning, and of developing intercultural competence, discussed earlier.

1.5.7 International volunteer work

Volunteering to work overseas for a period of time ranging from two or three weeks to a full year can offer a situation for development of intercultural competence, especially in that it often requires immersion in the local community. Such work can also vary from the relatively structured “Service Learning” to individualised projects such as those undertaken by volunteers in the European Voluntary Service scheme, now part of Erasmus Plus, promoted through National Agencies (e.g. The British Council) and the European Commission (see: http://ec.europa.eu/programmes/erasmus-plus/index_en.htm).

An approach to learning which can develop intercultural competence but also integrates formal and non-formal learning with learning through experience is that known as ‘Service Learning’. Service learning can, in fact, take many different forms from regular short periods of involvement in projects in the local community to extensive periods of work in overseas situations. However, the crucial factor which distinguishes Service Learning from other forms of local volunteer service, study abroad or overseas volunteer projects is the integration of the preparatory education, service aspects and subsequent reflection on the activity. Annette (2000) clarifies this integration:

Central to Kolb’s learning cycle is the activity of reflection which follows from concrete experience and precedes abstract conceptualisation. It is important to note that the concrete experience for service learning is a structured learning experience which provides the opportunity for reflection. (p. 84)

Other authors (e.g. Wilczenski and Coomey, 2000; Strait and Lima, 2009) have noted that such reflection can help to develop awareness of environmental issues, equality, cultural diversity and social justice while encouraging students to acknowledge their social responsibilities.

Service learning projects vary in length and depth of involvement of participants. Some may be of short duration, for example the short term CISV programme, *International People's Project* (see: <http://www.cisv.org/cisv-programmes/international-peoples-project/?CISV%20IPP%20programme>) or programmes for groups organised by Raleigh International (<http://www.raleighinternational.org/what-we-do/bespoke-programmes>). In such a programme the opportunities for development of intercultural competences through direct interaction with local people are likely to be limited, although it might be argued that the participant is most likely to undertake such a project if s/he already has interest in the host culture. In other programmes there may be less emphasis on formal education and the volunteer may be alone or be a member of a very small group assigned to work closely with local people on a specific local project for several months. For example, one participant in a European Voluntary Service (EVS) programme demonstrated how she had adapted to life in the local, small village, community when she wrote in her report:

Prior to arrival I had been warned about the size of the village where I would live, but the reality of life in a village of 70 inhabitants in rural Germany was still a shock! Rather than making the experience rather isolated, it was a fantastic opportunity to involve myself in traditional life and enjoy the warm welcome from the community. I enthusiastically celebrated festivals such as *Kirmes*, *Kindertag*, *Pfingsten*, harvested wheat, played cards and baked cakes with the other members of the village and integrated easily.
(EVS Report to CISV Great Britain, September 2013)

For this volunteer it seems that she used time during the service to increase her understanding of the host culture and to become involved with the cultural activities of the local community. This demonstrates that, for those who are motivated and in appropriate situations, service learning can provide opportunities to (further) develop intercultural competence.

In an analysis of surveys completed by participants in projects similar to the EVS project cited above, plus participants in other Youth In Action programmes promoted by the European Union, Fennes, Gadinger and Hagleitner (2012) note the development of “interpersonal, social, intercultural and foreign language competences of both participants and project leaders,” (p. 1). They comment on the development of attitudes of respect for cultural diversity and awareness of inequalities in society and note that leaders’ perceptions of participants’ learning correspond strongly with the participants’ self-perceptions. Interestingly, and relevant to discussion in the sections of this chapter on study abroad and short term intercultural experiences, they note that “there is no indication that the project duration has an effect on the responses,” (p. 4). They also note that intercultural learning effects for hosts can be significant, an effect which was, similarly, discussed by Fantini and Tirmiz (2006) when they reported:

It is clear that host mentors were impacted in various ways through interactions with the volunteers – in areas of knowledge, attitudes, skills, and awareness. ICC contact has the potential to affect both / all parties in the interaction – volunteers and hosts alike – whether at home or abroad. The phrase, “looking out is looking in,” acquires more meaning when we also include the hosts who through contact with foreigners also began processes of reflection and introspection that might not otherwise have occurred. (p. 69)

In each of the different intercultural situations (long term study abroad, short term intercultural programmes and service learning), briefly discussed above, participants appear to have developed personal skills and cultural awareness through direct, in – person interaction with other people, more often in another country than their home country. It could be asked whether it is possible to develop similar competences without the element of travel, or hosting volunteers from overseas, involved in the studies described above. We will, therefore, consider non-formal education which can be experienced without the travel or visitor element, implicit in the previous studies, by looking at Development Education within the United Kingdom.

1.5.8 Development education

The objective of development education is to enable people to participate in the development of their community, their nation and the world as a whole. Such participation implies a critical awareness of local, national, and international situations based on an understanding of social, economy, and political process. (United Nations definition of Development Education, 1975, quoted by Fricke, 2011)

Fricke (2011) reminds us that Development Education (DE) in the United Kingdom (UK) has developed over more than forty years, not just to support overseas development aid but, importantly, also to provide opportunities for learning about national or local matters, including life in a multicultural society, gender issues, human rights and environmental concerns. There have also been specific movements related to Environmental Education as a distinct area of learning, but with substantial overlap in consideration of specific environmental issues, adequate nutrition and sustainability which are included under the umbrella of DE.

The term “development education” emerged during the 1970s in parallel with the growth of overseas development and aid organisations, but also with the influence of UNESCO and the United Nations, as noted in the quotation above. Hicks (2003) discusses the development of the 1980s Schools Council project, “World Studies 8-13” and the parallel work of the Centre for Global Education at the University of York, both of which supported teachers in developing democratic approaches to education and ways of learning about the world. Bourn (2008) notes that, in the UK and other industrialised countries, DE was perceived as linked to ideas of social democracy, with a potentially political impact. As a result of this, funding for DE became linked to government bias, although in the European context there was support for the development of global education highlighted in events such as the 2002 *Maastricht Congress on Global Education in Europe to 2015*, which included emphasis on the Millennium Development Goals; the 2005 *Brussels European Conference on*

Awareness-Raising and Development Education for North-South Solidarity; and the 2006 *Helsinki Conference on European Development Education*. An outcome of these conferences was the establishment of a task group to develop a consensus document on Development Education and Awareness Raising (DEAR), published in 2007. Despite this support and the growth of national strategies for DE in some of the member nations, Lappalainen (2012) notes that the European Union did not have a coordinated strategy for DE. In arguing for the development of such a strategy, Lappalainen (ibid) notes the importance of including an evaluation system which “would allow for the systematic monitoring of the effectiveness and impact of actions and enhance organisational learning,” (p. 78). At the time of writing there is further EU consultation on the implementation of DEAR in member countries, (European Commission, 2013).

Bourn and Brown (2011), writing in a UK context, commented on the promotion of learning about global issues in schools during the period 1997 to 2010. Simultaneously, various Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and locally organised Development Education Centres (DECs) continued to promote strategies and resources for DE which could be used in schools. Notable among these resources was the Oxfam *Curriculum for Global Citizenship*, discussed in the next section, although it should be noted that Oxfam also produced a catalogue of resources devised and produced by educators in a range of other such organisations.

In England, a National Association of Development Education Centres came under the overview of the newly constituted “Development Education Association” (now “Think Global”) in 1993 and there are partner organisations in Scotland (IDEAS), Wales (CYFANFYD) and Northern Ireland (CADA-NI). According to the Development Education Exchange in Europe Project (DEEEP) (2007), these organisations share the following definition of their work with other European partners:

Development Education is an active learning process, founded on values of solidarity, equality, inclusion and co-operation. It enables people to move from basic awareness of international development priorities and sustainable human development, through understanding of the causes and effects of global issues, to personal involvement and informed action. (Bourn, 2008, p. 3 - 4)

This definition links “education” and “action” so could be interpreted as action to support people or organisations in the global south, such as taking part in a school partnership (see Leonard, 2008), or in action to support development aid. However, an alternative might be action to show awareness of the relationship between what one does at home, in one’s locality, and what is happening in other parts of the world. It has also been suggested that global activity should be seen through education as developing the skills needed in a global labour market. Bourn (2008) poses the question as to whether education should be primarily to enable participation in the global economy or if it should aim to “. . . provide the knowledge, skills and values base to understand and interpret the changing world so that people can become more active and engaged citizens,” (ibid, p. 60). It is the latter conception of DE that is most relevant to the current discussion, in which teaching and learning strategies advocated for DE can be compared with the participative methods used in the thesis case study. Likewise, the educational goals of the case study organisation, discussed in the next chapter, share ideas in common with Development Education when we are advised that DE is about:

- Enabling people to understand the links between their own lives and those of people throughout the world;
- Increasing understanding of the global economic, social and political environmental forces which shape our lives;
- Developing the skills, attitudes and values which enable people to work together to bring about change and take control of their own lives;
- Working to achieve a more just and sustainable world in which power and resources are equitably shared. (DEA 2006, quoted in Bourn, 2008, p. 3)

The inclusion of a ‘global dimension’ in British education has been advocated by the Department for International Development (DfID) and methods employed in DE,

such as enquiry methods, discussion, or planning one's own projects, have been seen as useful in the school system, although the content and discussion of global issues may not have pervaded the curriculum as widely as advocated (Fricke, 2011, p. 33). One of the challenges for DE has been to provide evidence of effectiveness. This is a particular challenge for organisations, such as Development Education Centres, which provide non-formal education, the results of which may not be evident in participants for a considerable time. (This difficulty was noted earlier as an aspect of evaluation of non-formal education in general.) The impact of DE methods on school students thus was not clear and, consequently, government policy towards DE has varied.

The discussion of Development Education, above, has assumed that such education is primarily organised by non-statutory bodies (although some of these may support work or promote interventions in schools) and largely undertaken by non-formal methods. However, possible achievements through the recently introduced Global Learning Programme, might also be seen as having the potential to develop 'global citizens'. In this context, although it is part of what is normally perceived as formal education, the next section will consider the recently introduced Global Learning Programme within the discussion of global citizenship education.

1.5.9 Global citizenship education

It has been noted (e.g. Bourn, 2008, 2014; Hicks, 2003; Davies, Harber and Yamashita, 2005) that a variety of terms are used to describe what, in the previous section, was referred to as 'Development Education'. Such terms include: Global Education, Education for Global Justice, and Global Citizenship. However, a distinction between DE and active global citizenship was recognised by the European

Parliament in July 2012 in adopting a *Written Declaration on Development Education and Active Global Citizenship*:

... whereas development education and awareness-raising are central to European development policies, as outlined in the European Development Education Consensus ... calls on the Commission and the Council to develop a long-term, cross-sectoral European strategy for development education, awareness raising and active global citizenship. (<http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//NONSGML+WDECL+P7-DCL-2012-0007+0+DOC+PDF+V0//EN>)

In the context of English education, the term “Development Education” has frequently been used in volunteer or non-formal areas of education, whereas “global citizenship education” is now included in the curriculum for pupils in upper primary and lower secondary schools. In the light of this development of the Citizenship curriculum over recent years, it seems most relevant now to use the term “Global Citizenship” and to consider how this concept may be developed. It is also useful to consider how education for global citizenship may help to develop intercultural competence.

Bourn (2014) suggests that the term “global learning” has come to prominence in recent years and argues that this both emphasises learning and draws attention to the globalised nature of current society. He supports a concept of global learning as “a guiding principle, defined by thematic issues such as development, environment, peace and interculturalism; and by competences that need to be acquired to live in a global society,” (p. 16). Such competence could be interpreted as intercultural competence, although Bourn suggests a pedagogy which recognises that learners will have diverse earlier experience to bring to the learning situation and posits a need for a sense of global outlook as one of responsibility. He also argues for a need to appreciate the historic and current functions of power and inequality. To counter this, he suggests recognition of belief in social justice and equality, acknowledging that the level of engagement with such ideas will depend on earlier experience and on the personal

perspectives of both educator and learner. He also emphasises the importance of reflection in proposing a need for “critical thinking, self-reflection and dialogue to enable the learner to make sense of and understand their own relationship to these themes and their impact on personal and social transformation,” (p. 22). This latter provides an echo of Kolb’s (1984) experiential learning model. Bourn later gives more detail on the importance of reflection when he discusses the transformative nature of such learning. He notes that transformation of the individual may be a goal of the learning through such a process, but transformation is not a linear process and it may not be an immediate outcome of the learning experience. However, he suggests three antecedents to the transformation stage as: (1) adoption of a critical perspective of one’s own views on the wider world, challenging personal assumptions and questioning the underlying beliefs; (2) working with others to appreciate differing perspectives and to open up discussion that might lead to further investigation; (3) recognition that critical thinking, with its associated reflection and dialogue, may prompt the learner to revise his / her world-view. In making these suggestions Bourn (ibid) argues for awareness of personal application to the learning, suggesting that “It is the process of reflection and reconsideration that should be the goal,” (p. 30). Bourn, subsequently, suggests that knowledge about inequalities, global issues and the impact of globalisation should be based in skills such as:

- Ability to communicate and participate in discussion on development themes and topics;
- Ability to question viewpoints and perspectives and to challenge stereotypes;
- Ability to listen to, understand and respect different voices and perspectives;
- Ability to be self-reflective and self-critical, and willing to change views and perspectives;
- Ability to co-operate and work with others;
- Ability to deal with the emotional impact of poverty and development on the lives of individual learners;
- Skills that enable learners to take forward their learning into informed action. (p. 33)

In developing this perspective, Bourn notes that such learning is based in specific values and posits a need to explore one's own values and their social relevance; the need to take account of the values of others and how these interact with one's own; the relevance of concepts of rights, equality, and social justice to topics being considered; and the necessity to respect and value diversity, (p. 33). While he relates this learning to the school curriculum, it is suggested here that the same topics and skills are particularly relevant to the values base of organisations that promote ideas of global citizenship, such as CISV.

In a detailed qualitative study of global citizenship education in the West Midlands, undertaken several years prior to the introduction of the current Global Learning Programme, (Global Dimension, 2013)), Davies, Harber and Yamashita (2005) found that most students and teachers interviewed regarded global citizenship education as very important. While they expected this result from the teachers involved, due to their roles as citizenship coordinators in their respective schools, they particularly note the importance ascribed to global citizenship by students, claiming "there is a genuine concern to learn about the wider world and global issues and to understand what is happening," (p. 141). These authors note the range of understandings that the children have of what a global citizen may be, but also suggest agreement of many pupils in areas such as valuing or respecting others, cooperation, awareness of interconnections and ways of creating change. They note the benefits claimed by schools which included a sense of responsibility, respect towards others, and a caring attitude, while also suggesting that the teachers they interviewed had great interest in global and development issues and felt it important to challenge pupils rather than always accept a conformist attitude. In the context of school education, Davies, Harber and Yamashita (ibid) suggest that, although global citizenship education is often claimed to develop knowledge, skills and attitudes, the emphasis in work in schools is

often on knowledge and understanding. However, they argue that the preferred learning areas, identified by pupils and teachers, can lend themselves to skill development where the use of critical thinking skills and skills of debate and discussion are included in school based global citizenship education. They outline three major areas of learning which were identified in their research:

- Learning about ‘others’: other cultures and religions, differences and similarities, shared humanity, differences in lives and value systems, questions of identity.
- Global injustice: wealth / poverty distribution, injustice, environmental issues.
- War and conflict: current / controversial events, complex reasons underlying conflict, rationale for participation / non-participation in anti-war demonstrations. (ibid, p. 142)

Students and teachers suggested a range of strategies which they thought relevant to global citizenship education. These included debates and discussion, experiential strategies (including relating learning to immediate concerns or relevant activities), visits and visitors (bringing first-hand experience or international aspects), and, research undertaken by pupils themselves (possibly on-line) so that they could make presentations to their peers or develop other forms of cooperative learning.

One teacher in the study by Davies, Harber and Yamashita (2005) suggested that as citizenship is a non-assessed area of the total curriculum it may be seen by pupils as less important than core subjects such as literacy and numeracy (ibid, p. 78). Other teachers argued that it takes a lower priority than they would like due to the time demands of these core subjects. However, some teachers, in both primary and secondary schools integrated citizenship approaches, such as democratic rule making for classroom management, into other aspects of their work.

At the time of writing, the latest citizenship curriculum is suspended, pending a new document, so, unless the school is involved in piloting the new Global Learning Policy, work in schools is most likely to be based on the Citizenship programme of study from the National Curriculum (QCA, 2007). This introduces the importance of citizenship education (mandatory in secondary schools) by stating:

Education for citizenship equips young people with the knowledge, skills and understanding to play an effective role in public life. Citizenship encourages them to take an interest in topical and controversial issues and to engage in discussion and debate. Pupils learn about their rights and responsibilities, duties and freedoms and about laws, justice and democracy. They learn to take part in decision-making and different forms of action. They plan an active role in the life of their schools, neighbourhoods, communities and wider society as active and global citizens. (p. 27)

It continues by explaining the importance of developing respect for members of different groups in British society and encourages exploration of the “diverse ideas, beliefs, cultures and identities and the values we share as citizens of the UK,” (p. 27). This document also suggests that pupils should develop understanding such that they “have the confidence and conviction to work collaboratively, take action and try to make a difference in their communities and the wider world,” (p. 28).

Although the Citizenship Curriculum is currently suspended, the new Global Learning Programme (GLP) was introduced for use in specifically identified schools in 2013. This was funded by the Department for International Development (DfID), rather than the Department for Education (DfE), and developed at the Institute of Education in collaboration with Pearson, the Geographical Association, Oxfam, the Royal Geographical Society, SSAT (The Schools’ Network) and Think Global. This new GLP defines global learning as:

An approach to learning about international development through recognising the importance of linking people’s lives throughout the world. It encourages

critical examination of global issues and an awareness of the impact that individuals can have on them. (<http://globaldimension.org.uk/glp>)

The GLP for schools is focused on key stages 2 and 3, (upper primary and lower secondary school years) and aims to:

- help young people understand their role in a globally interdependent world and explore strategies by which they can make it more just and sustainable
 - familiarise pupils with the concepts of interdependence, development, globalisation and sustainability
 - enable teachers to move pupils from a charity mentality to a social justice mentality
 - stimulate critical thinking about global issues, both at a whole school and pupil level
 - help schools promote greater awareness of poverty and sustainability
 - enable schools to explore alternative models of development and sustainability in the classroom.
- (<http://globaldimension.org.uk/glp/page/10807>)

These aims are designed to move beyond the formal, knowledge based, curriculum, about which Liddy (2013) reminds us that “. . . knowledge alone does not engender change or ethical maturity,” (p. 30). It is hoped that working towards the aims of the GLP will facilitate integration of learning about global issues into the wider education of children in upper primary and lower secondary schools. It is suggested that there will be an accompanying development of skills and values, especially through the use of the participatory methods implicit in statements on the website that the Global Learning Programme is designed to help students to:

- Learn about why there are inequalities in the world
 - Take part in discussions about development
 - Learn about the social, economic, environmental, cultural and political impacts of globalisation
 - Listen to, understand and respect different voices and perspectives
 - Question viewpoints and challenge stereotypes
 - Explore their values and how they impact on others
 - Be self-reflective and develop critical thinking and analytical skills
 - Understand different ways of achieving global poverty reduction
- (<http://globaldimension.org.uk/glp/benefits>)

Bourn (2014) argues that the approach suggested in the GLP should be “seen as a way of putting into practice the pedagogy of development education in schools, with global learning as the application of this pedagogy,” (p. 20). While appreciating the diversity of prior knowledge and experience among learners, he proposes a framework for such education to cover four main aspects:

A Sense of Global Outlook: From concern for the poor and dispossessed to one of global responsibility.

A Recognition of Power and Inequality in the World: recognition of power in development – historical antecedents for colonialism to the forces of globalisation.

A Belief in Social Justice and Equality: recognising that a personal moral and social commitment to social justice and a better world may be a motivator for engagement in development education, but that this engagement will vary according to experience, personal philosophy and the outlook of the educator.

A Commitment to Reflection and Dialogue: learning about development poses questions that require critical thinking, self-reflection and dialogue to enable the learner to make sense of and understand their own relationship to these themes and their impact on personal and social transformation. (pp. 21-22)

Bourn (ibid) argues from the perspective of one who has substantial experience in development education and this is clear in the outline he suggests, indicated above. However, Bourn’s model of development education shares some aspects with the concept of ICC, proposed by Fantini (2000), particularly knowledge and awareness, when he suggests an approach to learning that:

- is framed within an understanding of development and global themes;
- is located within a values base of social justice;
- promotes critical and reflective thinking;
- encourages the learner to make connections between their own lives and those of others throughout the world;
- provides opportunities for the learner to have positive and active engagements in society that contribute to their own perspective of what a better world could look like. (p. 15)

Ideas behind this approach to learning can also be seen in the model for non-formal education used in CISV, which will be discussed in Chapter 2. However, it is noted that Bourn (ibid) is writing about education within a school curriculum, whereas CISV and other voluntary organisations may be providing non-formal education outside the school system.

Bourn and Brown (2011) distinguish between the curriculum that teachers teach and that which pupils learn. They note that the latter may include unintended aspects, both positive and negative. They also note potential differences between the curricula laid out in policy documents and those developed for teaching in schools and argue that although many teachers are interested that their pupils should explore global issues in their work this does not always happen in practice. They suggest that this may relate to teacher confidence or, as noted by Davies, Harber and Yamashita (2005), pressure on teaching time. Similarly, Bourn and Brown (ibid) note that time pressure may limit the use of the sort of flexible teaching strategies described by Davies, Harber and Yamashita (ibid), despite the Citizenship Curriculum (2007) stating that pupils should be able to “express and explain their own opinions to others through discussions, formal debates and voting,” (p. 30) and the GLP, as noted above, advocating questioning, discussion and reflective strategies.

Examples of the successful use of global learning strategies in work towards school leaving qualifications that have an international element are cited by Hogg (2011). These qualifications include the International Baccalaureate, the Cambridge Pre-U Diploma, International GCSEs and some A-Level qualifications such as the geography syllabi which involve work on environmental issues, causes of conflict and issues of power. Introducing case studies which demonstrate the inclusion of aspects of global learning in these qualifications, Hogg (2011) responds to professional and

industrialists' statements that they need staff who are able to work in a global environment with colleagues from around the world and who show leadership skills by claiming that "learning about global issues whilst at school helps to give young people these characteristics and skills," (p. 3). Arguing that "global learning is an important driver of high attainment" this publication defines global learning as:

[E]ducation that puts learning into a global context, fostering: critical and creative thinking; self-awareness and open-mindedness towards difference; understanding of global issues and power relationships; and, optimism and action for a better world," (p. 4).

Writing in 2003, Hicks noted the growth of citizenship within the school curriculum and was also able to suggest that: "Global education has a crucial role to play in the promotion of excellence in the new DfID-influenced climate. It is not just about the amount of global work that goes on but, more importantly, about its quality." (p. 273) One of the tools that he noted as being of particular value in supporting quality work in school was the Oxfam document mentioned in the previous section and originally devised before citizenship became an essential element of the National Curriculum, which gave advice about integrating the global dimension across the curriculum. Bourn and Brown (2011) cite the revised version of this document, *Education for Global Citizenship: A guide for schools* (Oxfam, 2006), as one of the useful resources offered by an international NGO. *Education for Global Citizenship: A guide for schools* offers a rationale for the importance of education for global citizenship as supporting young people in meeting life's challenges. It is suggested that "Education for global citizenship is good education because it involves children and young people fully in their own learning through the use of a wide range of active and participatory learning methods," (p. 1). The guide claims that such methods, in conjunction with a global perspective, help pupils to appreciate how decisions made by

people in one part of the world can affect the lives of others. The guide also argues that Education for Global Citizenship is relevant to all parts of the curriculum and should pervade the whole school, “for it is a perspective on the world shared within an institution, and is explicit not only in what is taught and learned in the classroom, but in the school’s ethos,” (p. 2). Ideally, this would include all who are involved in school life, not just pupils and teachers.

Knowledge and Understanding	Skills	Values and attitudes
Social justice and equity	Critical thinking	Sense of identity and self-esteem
Diversity	Ability to argue effectively	Empathy
Globalisation and interdependence	Ability to challenge injustice and inequalities	Commitment to social justice and equity
Sustainable development	Respect for people and things	Value and respect for diversity
Peace and conflict	Co-operation and conflict resolution	Concern for the environment and commitment to sustainable development
		Belief that people can make a difference

Figure 1.6: Key elements for responsible Global Citizenship (Oxfam, 2006, p. 4)

Oxfam set out their proposed *Curriculum for Global Citizenship* (ibid, pp. 5-7), as a suggestion of cross-curricular areas to be covered in each Key Stage, (not just the key stages 2 and 3 of the GLP) in terms of knowledge and understanding, skills, and, values and attitudes using the key elements shown above. Individual attributes implicit in the National Curriculum citizenship section of this Curriculum for Global Citizenship document are stated clearly in Oxfam’s description of the sort of young people they are trying to develop when they suggest that:

Oxfam sees the Global Citizen as someone who:

- Is aware of the wider world and has a sense of their own role as a world citizen

- Respects and values diversity
 - Has an understanding of how the world works
 - Is outraged by social injustice
 - Participates in the community at a range of levels, from the local to the global
 - Is willing to act to make the world a more equitable and sustainable place
 - Takes responsibility for their actions
- (ibid, p. 3)

Global citizenship education, however, is not restricted to formal (school) education but can often be an aspect of the work undertaken in voluntary organisations. For example, Bourn and Brown (2011) note that non-formal opportunities for learning about being a global citizen are created by youth workers and “are apparent within the activities of organisations providing more structured informal learning, such as Scouts, Guides and Woodcraft Folk,” (p. 16). (Such “structured, informal” learning is described as *non formal* rather than *informal* in the current work.) The organisation in which the case study discussed later in this thesis is based (CISV) claims “CISV educates and inspires action for a more just and peaceful world,” (CISV, 2009, p. 12). *CISV Big Ed, Big Education Guide for Active Global Citizenship* states:

Peace Education provides us with the Attitudes, Skills and Knowledge we need to become agents of change, both locally and globally. In other words; to become ‘Active Global Citizens’, (p. 8).

CISV suggests a range of attitudes, skills and knowledge which should be developed in order to be an “active global citizen” and identifies four areas of work considered useful as foci for the non-formal programmes provided by the organisation:

Diversity: Explores the identity of the individual and then asks us to consider ourselves within our own and the wider community.

Human Rights: Considers how human rights affect every aspect of lives and how violations lie at the root of problems such as poverty, violence and lawlessness.

Conflict and resolution: Helps us to understand how conflict can arise, deliberately or otherwise, and what can be done to bring about a peaceful resolution.

Sustainable Development: Looks for integrating ways to promote economic and social well-being, while protecting the environment through the responsible use of natural resources. (ibid, p. 23)

CISV's educational approach will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter but it is noted here that the organisation encourages the use of experiential methods, using a "Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply" model, based on Kolb's (1984) learning model, discussed in section 1.2.4, above. Experiential learning as a style of education has been advocated in documents discussed earlier in this section.

Developing the knowledge and understanding, skills, and values and attitudes suggested by Oxfam, and echoed in CISV goals, as attributes of an active global citizen might be seen as contributing to the development of intercultural competence. An appreciation of both diversity and shared commonalities in intercultural situations can facilitate understanding. Recognition of rights and responsibilities can support empathy towards, and understanding of, those who live in different circumstances. An awareness of the potential for conflicts, and knowledge of how to resolve conflict, can help with understanding life in a different culture and, looking at this from a contrary perspective, an appreciation of cultural difference might help to avoid conflict. While sustainable development may not be thought to be related to the personal attributes of ICC, ideas and practices related to this are linked to awareness of and concern for fellow human beings, offering an opportunity to demonstrate concern for others that, it could be argued, is also needed in order to be an effective intercultural communicator.

In summary, education for global citizenship aims to "develop the knowledge skills and values needed for securing a just and sustainable world in which all may fulfil

their potential,” (Oxfam, 2006). Such education may be provided in formal, informal or non-formal settings. The use of discussion, debate and experiential methods is advocated so that young people develop a sense of participation and personal ownership of their learning. These strategies also aim to develop communicative abilities which encourage young people to become willing to participate in beneficial activities outside the situation of formal education and facilitate active involvement in intercultural communication when such opportunities arise.

This section set out to define and explore the concept of intercultural competence and moved on to consider various contexts for its development. Such contexts included: long term study abroad; short term international, intercultural projects; more locally organised non-formal learning provided through development education initiatives; and, global education aspects of the citizenship curriculum. This has provided a context for the case study organisation, CISV, which will be introduced more thoroughly in the next chapter. However, at this point it is noted that CISV National Associations and Chapters / Branches organise both short term international, intercultural projects and, often through their Junior Branches, local educational events or programmes which are similar in nature to aspects of development education or education for global citizenship. Attempts to evaluate the learning which takes place in such diverse situations have employed a variety of methods and met with varied degrees of success. Some of these evaluations will be outlined, briefly, in the next section. It is noted that evaluation of learning in many of these contexts is undertaken by the programme staff or leaders, or is made through completion of a questionnaire at the end of the programme. This project sets out to explore the potential use of an evaluation tool which is completed by the participants themselves, based on the goal indicators of a specific programme in CISV; a tool which encourages the youth participants to consider their position in relation to statements of competence on dimensions related to the goal

indicators at both the beginning and end of the programme, and, also, to predict at the beginning where they will be at the end and reflect from the end on where they were at the beginning. This evaluation strategy also uses narrative spaces for the participants to comment on what they consider to be most important in their learning. It, thus, offers a concise but flexible strategy which might be adapted to a variety of situations, such as those discussed earlier in this section, but needed initial trial and evaluation in itself before being suggested for use in other contexts. However, before introducing the case study more thoroughly and setting out the research questions prior to description of their implementation, section 1.6 will further develop the background to the case study by considering some pre-existing forms of evaluation in a variety of intercultural learning situations.

1.6 Evaluation studies in global learning and non-formal education

The focus of the case study in this thesis is on learning in a programme of non-formal education. However, before considering some studies of evaluation of learning in non-formal settings it will consider, briefly, studies with two very different methodologies which aimed to evaluate experiences of global education in schools.

1.6.1 Evaluating global learning

Using a wide ranging sample of almost 2000 pupils between the ages of 11 and 16 from 82 different schools, Ipsos Mori obtained questionnaire results in a survey conducted on behalf of the Development Education Association (now *Think Global*) (DEA 2008). The study was planned to address three main questions: were pupils experiencing global learning in school; did they feel that it was important to experience

global learning; and, did they believe they have an impact on the world and do they act to make the world a better place? (p. 3) While it was found that over half of the pupils reported some aspect of global learning in school during the previous term, it was noted that there was also a proportion of respondents (up to 20%) who did not experience any global learning. The report both considers the pupils' attitudes to global issues and the effect of experience of global learning on their attitudes. It was noted that young people who had experienced global learning in school were more likely to think of its content and methods as important than were those who had not experienced such learning. Two thirds of the pupils surveyed believed there were things that "people like them" could do to make the world a better place and more than half of the pupils expressed a desire to understand why there are problems in the world. Similarly, de Groede (2012) in a study of data from 20,000 Dutch children aged nine to thirteen, found that 45% considered themselves to be global citizens and that these children had a greater understanding of interdependency and equality of individuals than other children. They also showed awareness of social responsibility and behaviour appropriate to global citizenship, (p. 3).

In contrast to the wide-ranging surveys reported above, Dillon, Ruane and Kavanagh (2010) undertook research into young children's perceptions of global justice through work with children between three and six years old in primary education in Ireland. Using a qualitative method based on the interchange between adult and pupil, and stimulated by a story, they explored the children's understandings of social justice, including the needs of the characters in the story, (hunger, thirst and poverty). They found that children in each age group could relate to the ideas of hunger and thirst and appeared to see a link between poverty and the limited resources of the characters in the stimulus story, but it was only members of their oldest age group (six years old) who used terms such as "poor" and "rich". The authors claim that the research "...

identified a number of significant starting points to develop children's thinking in relation to global justice," (p. 88) and suggest that these might include exploration of consequences of lack of basic needs; potential altruistic tendencies; seeing things from another's perspective; and, considering possible solutions to problems.

The very different studies of global education in formal education settings, briefly described above, suggest some benefits of such education for the personal development of the children or young people involved. Starting at a young age to generate an awareness of global issues, including inequalities of wealth, and providing means to see such things from the perspective of "the other", it is proposed, provides a basis on which to develop more detailed understanding of global issues. It is also suggested that starting to develop this awareness of the needs of others and of global inter-relationships prepares a foundation for the potential development of intercultural competence as well as international understanding. This cyclic development of awareness leading to subsequent development of knowledge, skills and related attitudes or values, which then underpins greater awareness, will recur in further discussion in this thesis and particularly in relation to the model of intercultural learning used in the case study organisation, in the next chapter.

Involvement in development education organisations which offer non-formal education activities may develop similar knowledge, skills and attitudes to those suggested as being developed in the studies outlined in the earlier part of this section. It was noted earlier (see section 1.5.8, above) that environmental education might be considered as an aspect of development education and it is suggested that the findings reported below are also relevant to DE and to the wider discussion of evaluation in non-formal learning.

1.6.2 Evaluations in environmental education

Carleton-Hug and Hug (2010) claim: “The paucity of evaluation in environmental education (EE) programming is somewhat surprising given that providers of EE typically espouse a practitioner orientation.” They suggest that EE should make greater use of evaluation both to support practice and to report benefits to the wider world. Carleton-Hug and Hug searched for evaluations in three EE journals published in North America over a fifteen year period to identify challenges and opportunities of evaluation. The several challenges they identified included that of diversity in the nature and terminology within environmental education, a lack of clarity in programme objectives (often resulting in a mismatch between the long-term outcomes of such programmes and the activities planned and conducted), the limited time scale of many EE programmes, various factors specific to the context of individual programmes and complexity of information sources. They note that summative evaluations are more likely to be reported, with the implication that formative approaches may be useful as a route to programme improvement. They suggest that a wider range of research approaches would be useful, the reports reviewed generally using the relatively simple strategy of pre- and post-activity questionnaires or surveys. Carleton-Hug and Hug argue that the theoretical framework behind evaluations of EE needs to be clearer in order to prompt more diverse and relevant methods of evaluation. They continue by discussing three aspects of current opportunities for evaluation of EE: interest expressed by educators, the national (USA) perspective on educational accountability and the need to educate the general population about environmental matters. In this discussion they note the recent provision of on-line guidelines and resources to support environmental educators in developing and evaluating programmes. They also suggest that evaluation can be crucial to showing effective use of educational resources and that it can show the benefits of the non-formal educational activities included in EE to funders and to the

general public. They summarise their review by advising environmental educators to include evaluation in their programme planning from an early stage so that they can make use of needs assessment and formative feedback in participatory evaluation, and advocating that:

... evaluation reports and publications disclose more about the evaluation theory being used in the evaluation, incorporate more high quality strategies congruent with the evaluation genre being used, and focus more on reporting the formative evaluation process that results in making judgements of value and merit. ... all of this can help reduce institutional resistance to evaluation. (p. 163)

One of the on-line tools mentioned by Carleton-Hug and Hug is MEERA, ‘My Environmental Education Evaluation Resource Assistant’ (available at: www.meera.snre.unich.edu). In an introduction to this resource, Zint (2010) suggests that it will be useful to those who experience pressure to conduct programme evaluations both to improve quality and to demonstrate accountability to funders. The resource is designed to be “user friendly” for those who were neither knowledgeable nor experienced in educational evaluation, as well as for those who have some experience in the field. It also contains useful links to programme evaluation resources based on other contexts in non-formal education and, demonstrating the philosophy behind its development “continues to evolve based on formative evaluations,” (p. 179).

An alternative, or supplement, to the open-access MEERA is advocated by Fleming and Easton in their discussion of the on-line course *Applied Environmental Education Program Evaluation (AEEPE)*. This course aims to provide non-formal educators with the knowledge and skills necessary to plan and conduct evaluations that will support continuous programme improvement. The authors note that most participants go on to conduct a formative evaluation, resulting in improvements in their own organisation, within a year of completing the course. They argue that as more

educators give value to and acquire skills in evaluation the demand for evaluation in non-formal education will increase and, in a somewhat cyclical manner, suggest:

Efforts to move evaluation into a more prominent position in professional EE associations and organisations that conduct EE can lead to an understanding of the varied use of evaluation findings and increase support for more EE program evaluation. (p. 176)

It was noted earlier that Environmental Education, as discussed in these studies from USA, has many areas of overlap with Development Education as considered in the previous section. This would suggest that evaluation strategies which are suggested or have been found useful for EE might also be useful in Development Education, Global Citizenship Education or other similar programmes of non-formal learning. It is possible that evaluation of some programmes or projects is only practical in the short term although useful results have been seen at this stage, for example in the questionnaire evaluations of short term exchange projects conducted by Ilg (2013) (see section 1.5.2, above) or those of longer term international service projects conducted by Fennes and colleagues (2012) (section 1.5.7, above). The overall goals of DE or education for global citizenship might have a much longer time-frame, and in such a time-frame there may be many confounding experiences which impact the individual, so attributing later behaviour to specific educational programmes is somewhat problematical. However, studies such as the long term follow up of international exchanges noted above (e.g. Bachner & Zeutschel, 2009; Byram, 2003a; Watson, 2008) document long-term impact of educational experience. These findings suggest that, although it may not be possible to ascribe adult behaviour to specific youth educational activity, there is more than anecdotal evidence of long term benefit of participation in such exchanges.

1.6.3 Participant self-evaluation in international programmes

Whilst conducting research that considered the use of the PDPEF in programmes for children and younger teenagers (Watson, 2012b), it was realised that adults in the programme were involved in the evaluation of the learning outcomes but little organised attempt had previously been made to involve the youth participants in Summer Camps in self-evaluation. Indeed, there seemed to be a paucity of strategies for youth self-evaluation of learning in intercultural programmes. An earlier example of self-evaluation within CISV had been attempted almost twenty years previously. Dickhoff, (1994) had used a pre / post programme questionnaire research design to examine learning of CISV Village and Interchange participants on specific pre-identified dimensions of potential intercultural learning and had included self-reporting in a second questionnaire at the post-programme stage of research. Similarly, Jiang Yan (2010) used a pre / post / post programme questionnaire design to look at some aspects of the acquisition of intercultural competence among CISV Village participants in Great Britain which included open questions related to communication and expectations / realisation of learning in the programme. Zhu Hua, Jiang Yan and Watson (2011), in reporting results from this project, note that, for the eleven year old children involved, there appeared to be changes which included “growing confidence, less concern with the language barrier, becoming more open-minded towards cultural difference and having more interest in global issues,” (p. 156-7). Importantly, they also note that, although the results of participation were generally positive, there was considerable variation in individual perceptions of the impact of intercultural learning. Their small sample (12 children) included one girl for whom her score on the measure of intercultural competence appeared to regress. The study reported in this thesis was planned to further explore learning in a CISV programme, but at a different age and among participants from several countries.

In work with slightly older teenagers who took part in international youth programmes in Europe, Ilg (2013) and Dubiski and Peters (2011) described the use of a self-evaluation tool. This tool used programme goals which had been identified by adult leaders at the beginning of a programme as the basis of questionnaires completed by the youth participants at the end of the programme. Data collected from more than 31,000 such participant questionnaires submitted between 2005 to 2011 report positive results, particularly in terms of building international friendships, appreciation of their leaders' support and having fun.

The studies identified above explored acquisition of intercultural competence and, in the work of Dubisk and Peters (2011) and Ilg (2013) specific goals identified by group leaders. The current project considers the specific programme goals and the indicators of those goals, identified and explained as observable aspects of intercultural competence, (section 3.4.1) and specific written comments on what the youth participants themselves reported as their learning when they had the opportunity to use narrative spaces.

1.7 Chapter summary

The model of education considered in section 1.1, above, might be considered as constructivist; each participant constructing their own learning and understanding in an informal or non-formal learning situation. The development, or construction, of intercultural competence in similar situations was considered in section 1.2 and a range of situations for intercultural learning, development education and global citizenship learning, plus related methods of evaluation, were addressed in subsequent sections.

The issue of research in non-formal education, and methods or strategies which might be used in such research, will be considered further in the discussion of

methodology in Chapter 3. Before that discussion of methodology and methods, Chapter 2 will introduce the case study and its organisational setting.

Chapter 2

Background to the Case Study: Education, Evaluation and Programme Planning in CISV

2.1 Introducing CISV

This thesis describes and analyses a case study of the learning of youth participants in a CISV Summer Camp, evaluated through the use of a purpose-designed tool, and considers leaders' views of the use of CISV's programme planning and evaluation strategy. Chapter 2 provides a context to this research project. It will give a brief outline of the origin and purposes of CISV, some previous research within the organisation, and its pedagogical development, before explaining the background to this specific study and introducing the research questions.

2.2 Historical perspective: CISV as a research project

The next sections will describe the origin and development of CISV from its original conception, almost seventy years ago, to the current, multi-national organisation. Its basis in research and the fluctuation in pursuit of research in CISV will be addressed.

2.2.1 Original concept and research in the first Village

CISV, formerly Children's International Summer Villages, is an international educational charity active in over 200 communities scattered throughout 70 nations around the world. The administrative headquarters (CISV International Office) has been in Newcastle upon Tyne since 1962, although the organisation originated in the USA. CISV's founder, Dr Doris T. Allen, recounted that the concept of CISV was

stimulated by ideas in an article in the Sunday Edition of the *New York Times*, 11th August 1946, where Alexander Meiklejohn suggested a “sort of graduate school for PhD level students of philosophy, history, political science, economics, physics [where] they would talk to each other from their respective backgrounds. This “school” would be aimed at a leadership group toward world peace.” (Matthews, 1991, p. 23)

Doris Allen’s reaction to this idea was that such international encounters needed to begin earlier in life. She took the opportunity to introduce her idea of starting international programmes from age 11 to colleagues at a session of the 1946 annual conference of the American Psychological Association chaired by Gordon Allport, who encouraged her to speak about her idea from the floor of the meeting hall. After subsequent discussions with UNESCO (Mexico, 1947, and Paris, 1949), it was clear that, although there was interest in her idea, there would be no substantive funding for the programme she was suggesting. With the help of her husband, Erastus (Rusty) Allen, and a group of local fund raisers, by 1951 she was able to organise and conduct the hosting of the first Children’s International Summer Village at Glendale, a suburb of Cincinnati, Ohio.

The first CISV Village had participants from nine different nations: Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Germany, Austria, France, England, Mexico and USA. (McKay and Allen, 1976). At this Village delegations consisted of six participants, three boys and three girls, plus two adult leaders, but subsequent practice has been that each nation is represented by four children (two boys and two girls) accompanied by one adult leader in Villages and Summer Camps, while groups of up to six youth participants plus a leader now attend the shorter Youth Meetings. It will be realised that most participants in this first Village came from countries that had recently been involved in the Second World War, some of them on opposing sides, so such a venture was not without risk. Activities in the Village were organised by staff members who had previous experience

of work in American summer camps while the leaders were engaged in their own programme, The Adult Institute. Again, current practice differs, and now in a CISV Village the delegation leaders work with the host staff to organise the programme of non-formal learning activities for the youth participants.

Through her professional links as a psychologist at Longview Children's Hospital, Cincinnati, and as a member of the American Psychological Association (APA), Doris Allen had contact with several notable social scientists of the mid-twentieth century, some of whom became members of the advisory panel on research in CISV. These included Robert C. Angell, University of Michigan; Gustav Carlson, University of Cincinnati; Eugene Hartley, University of Wisconsin; George W. Kisker, University of Cincinnati; Robert Leeper, University of Oregon; Ronald Lippit, University of Michigan; Margaret Mead, American Museum of Natural History, New York; J. L. Moreno, Moreno Institute, New York; and Roger W. Russell, University of California. (Allen, 1951a)

The effect of personal contact between members of differing groups was of interest to social scientists at the time that she was planning the first Village, and Doris Allen was influenced by this "contact hypothesis," as explained in Allport's work, *The Nature of Prejudice*, (1954), where he stated:

Prejudice (unless deeply rooted in the character structure of the individual) may be reduced by equal status contact between majority and minority groups in the pursuit of common goals. The effect is greatly enhanced if this contact is sanctioned by institutional supports (i.e. by law, custom or local atmosphere), and provided it is of a sort that leads to the perception of common interests and common humanity between members of the two groups. (p. 281)

Since the middle of the twentieth century, from time to time, there has been debate on this concept, often linked to discussion of prejudice, xenophobia or ethnic conflict. (See, for example, Connolly, 2000). However, personal contact with

participants from other countries has remained an essential feature of CISV programmes and the youth participants are all accorded equal status in such programmes. Adult leaders and host staff facilitate contact between the youth participants in both structured and informal situations. Conditions in these programmes are consistent with the optimum situation for development of favourable attitudes towards others as suggested by Allport (ibid). Furthermore, in the Summer Camp programme, of which the case study described later was one example, the youth participants were given responsibility for creating and conducting programme activities and for governing aspects of daily life through decisions made in Camp Meetings. In this respect they were made aware of the organisational support for their mixing and friendship-making. This could be seen to constitute the “institutional support” which Allport also suggests is important. The responsibilities undertaken by youth participants for organisation of their routines and educational programme in a Summer Camp might, also, have demonstrated the value of shared learning, mentioned in Siebel’s (2013) discussion of peer learning.

Doris Allen was also influenced by the ideas of Kurt Lewin, with whom she had studied. Lewin’s concepts of “field” (an individual’s life-space as his psychological environment or the life-space of a group as the environment that exists for that group) and “existence” (the life-space at any given time includes all facts that have existence and excludes those that do not have existence for the individual or group under study) (Cartwright, 1951) are reflected in two of her initial hypotheses for CISV research:

1. That social perceptions (the way an individual or group interprets interpersonal relations of individuals and of groups) are determined by the individual’s life experiences and can be modified by controlling those experiences.
2. That those social perceptions especially relevant to international understanding can be influenced by controlled experiences in international contacts.
(Allen, 1951a)

An important aspect of this first Village was the detailed research programme, planned by Doris Allen, introduced with a statement of purpose:

In general terms, the purpose of the research is to evaluate the Children's International Summer Village experience in terms of its contribution to international understanding. Although one or two attempts have been made at setting up international conferences for war orphans from children's communities on the continent, this is the first children's international summer village to be organised for children from normal home backgrounds and for children to meet concurrently with parents and teachers. The research team therefore faces a responsibility for defining the total situation and recording what happens under the given conditions.

The trend is for an increase in international exchanges of personnel, yet these are not being recorded in a way to assess the values derived therefrom. Studies made at the Children's International Summer Village in 1951 should yield data pertinent to the many forms of cross-national situations which are being set up. (Doris Allen Papers, 1951)

These purposes continue to be important to CISV and are currently summarised as:

- to further education in international understanding of children throughout the world without distinction of race, religion or politics so that they may grow to maturity conscious of their responsibilities as human beings;
 - to develop the individual child's potential for cooperation with others;
 - to further research contributing to this work.
- (<http://www.cisv.org/about-us/about-cisv-int/internationalgovernance/>)

To achieve the research purposes outlined above, a detailed protocol of formal testing, including tests of ethnic preference, friendship, social acceptance and familiarity, was undertaken by Dr Allen and her colleagues at the beginning, middle and end of the Village. In addition, structured observations were made by a team of research students, particularly of the participant's choice of companions in the informal dining room. The intensity of this research protocol diminished during subsequent programmes.

A Condensed Summary of CISV Research: 1951 – 1961 (Allen, 1962) lists selected findings from early research work in CISV. These include:

- Over the period of the Village there is a growing process of friendship formation across national boundaries. In 1951 twice as many contacts were

made with campers from ‘other’ as from ‘own’ delegations (5040 recorded contacts).

- Contacts analysed for emotional tone showed twice as many with ‘positive’ emotional tone as ‘undetermined’. Only five percent were ‘negative’ in emotional tone (5040 recorded contacts).
 - Analysis reveals that one reason for deep friendship formation is that the children are bound together by common goals . . .
 - Eleven year olds, even in Villages in which five to seven different languages are represented, can communicate without a common language. They easily speak by means of sign language or by some other improvised technique.
- (p. 3)

2.2.2 Evolution of additional CISV Programmes

The CISV Village of 28 days for groups of children aged 11 years from ten to twelve countries remains unique to CISV and over 50 are now organised each year, but in the 60+ years since the first Village other programmes have been developed. The initial additional programme to evolve was the “Reunion” camp, the first of these being organised in 1959 (Matthews, 1991). Since the mid-1960s this programme included participants who were new to CISV’s International Programmes, although often members of local Junior Branches, as well as former participants. The idea of Reunions for older teenagers has evolved to the current *Seminar Camp* programme for individual participants aged 17 or 18. A group exchange between Hamburg, Germany, and partners in Newcastle upon Tyne, in 1962, was the first of the CISV *Interchange* programmes, which are now widespread with over 100 such exchanges organised in 2013. Subsequently there were several shorter, informally arranged, meetings of variously sized groups of teenagers (mostly in Europe) during shorter holidays which evolved into the current one or two week *Youth Meeting* programme for groups of six participants aged 12/13 or 14/15 and for individuals of 16 to 18 or 19+. During the 1980s there were trials of a group participation programme for teenagers (ages 13 to 15) which became established as the *Summer Camp* programme (later just for age 14 or 15), one of which was the case study to be reported in this thesis. Subsequent to the data

collection for this thesis the programme has been re-named *Step-Up*. CISV also now has a short term service programme for those over 19 years old, *International People's Project (IPP)*, established in the late 1990s. In addition to the international programmes there is a locally organised programme, *Mosaic*, in which members of an individual branch or group of closely located branches can engage in an educational or service project of their own design, but supported and monitored by the International Mosaic Committee.

In addition to the current range of programmes, for over twenty years CISV had reciprocal arrangements with Pathfinder and Pioneer organisations in eastern Europe, hosting many eastern groups in CISV Villages while slightly older (usually 13 to 15 years) young people took part in the Pathfinder or Pioneer camps. Since about 1991 many of the countries previously involved in this reciprocal arrangement have been able to establish their own CISV national associations.

Village – age 11; groups of 2 boys, 2 girls + adult leader; 10 – 12 delegations; 28 days
Summer Camp (Step Up from 2012) – age 14 or 15; groups of 2 boys, 2 girls + adult leader; 9 delegations; 23 days
Seminar – age 17/18; 24 to 30 individual participants; 21 days
Youth Meeting - 8 or 15 days
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - age groups 12/13, 14/15; groups of 6 participants + adult leader; 5 delegations; - Age 16-18 or 19+; individual participants, 8 or 15 days
Interchange – bi-lateral short term exchange over one or two years, for groups of 6 to 12 participants, ages 12 to 15, from each country
IPP – age 19+, up to 24 participants, 14 to 21 days

Figure 2.1: Summary of Current CISV international Programmes

Parallel to the evolution of this range of programmes, young people who have had experience in CISV international programmes, who are preparing to take part in one of

the international programmes or who simply have an interest in the purposes and activities of CISV in their locality have formed “Junior Branches”. Representatives of CISV “Juniors” have recognised roles in the CISV International decision making process with at least one member on the International Governing Board and membership of international, national and local committees, as well as participation in their own sector of the global organisation.

2.2.3 CISV research in the early years

Initial plans for regular follow-up of participants in this first Village suggested re-testing after four to ten months then every ten years, in order to monitor the effects of CISV participation on their lives. (Slaatto, 1967) These plans proved impractical, but during the first few years of CISV Doris Allen and her husband often travelled to visit Villages being held in Europe or USA and she would take the opportunity to meet and re-test former participants. A more substantive study of former participants who had already reached the age of 20 or more years was undertaken by Dr Fred Wright, in 1968. His summary of results included the following assertions:

- CISV graduates have attained a high level of education and are still pursuing an even higher level. Since CISV is interested in potential leaders who can share their influence with others, it appears that selection at eleven years of age has been satisfactory in this respect.
- Choice of occupations is in keeping with the level of educational achievement, but there was nothing about the pattern of occupations which could be attributed to CISV influence. However, the motivation behind the occupation did suggest an orientation towards international and social service activity . . .
- International interest was quite evident in the number of languages learned, the number of other countries visited since attending the CISV Village and the time spent in other countries. These results were so striking that they can be given considerable credence even without a formal control group.

- When asked their greatest wish, 105 of the 172 CISV graduates gave a response that indicated primary concern for the world community rather than a personal or parochial wish. (Wright and Allen, 1969)

Wright had used a structured questionnaire to gather his data, but somewhat later Dickhoff (1994) trialled a more open strategy in several member nations. Volunteers collected responses from youth participants to a purpose designed closed questionnaire plus written responses to open questions about general learning and, in a second question, learning about oneself in the programme in which they had most recently participated. He found that the great majority of statements about learning claimed on these forms (69%) related to intercultural learning with 22% relating to personal development education and just 7% to human relations education. Dickhoff (ibid) reported that at a Leadership Training Workshop held in 1993 participants expressed a strong desire to include global issues awareness in CISV education policies and presaged the re-formulation of educational policies, as discussed in section 2.3.3, below.

2.2.4 Recent research in CISV

Since the beginning of the 21st century there has been a resurgence of interest in the function of research in CISV. Factors which have contributed to this potentially include the need for the organisation to be seen to benefit participants, the codification of educational principles (discussed below), technology which permits discreet recording and / or rapid communication, and the employment of an education and training officer (subsequently the Training and Quality Assurance Manager). Work has been undertaken by post graduate students (including Catania, 2011; and Jiang Yan, 2010), and by members of CISV's Education Committees (e.g. Thorpe 2006, 2009, and Watson, 2008, 2012b). Summaries of some of these papers are available at:

<http://www.cisv.org/cisv-education/research/current-research-projects/> Research

involving the analysis of dialogue in CISV Villages and Summer Camps was coordinated by Professor Claudio Baraldi, University of Modena, and published as *Dialogue in Intercultural Communities: From an Educational Point of View* (Baraldi, 2009), and several papers based on work in CISV are included in his later publication, *Participation, Facilitation and Mediation*, (Baraldi and Iervese, 2012).

2.3 Pedagogical development

Participation in CISV programmes is voluntary, but participants are usually encouraged by their parents or care-givers to join in with these activities. Programmes are frequently organised in a way that supports active decision making by the youth participants. Both youth participants and adults are known by their given names, in an egalitarian manner, and leaders act as facilitators of learning rather than didactic “teachers”. Engagement in a CISV programme involves similar aspects of learning to those identified by Bourn (2014) as aspects of the Philosophy for Children (P4C) methodology. This includes support of imaginative questioning, listening to ideas proposed by others and considering peer decisions on what should be followed up. Education in CISV has similar attributes to those identified by Bourn (ibid) for P4C, which he suggests as demonstrating:

- A way to open up children’s learning through enquiry and the exploration of ideas;
- Giving children [and adolescents] the possibility of seeing that their ideas have value, and that others have ideas that have value, too;
- Developing the confidence to ask questions, and learn through discussion;
- Giving all learners (including teachers) opportunities to genuinely enquire;
- A chance to speak and be heard without fear of getting an answer wrong;
- A way for intelligence to grow;
- Giving children who are not considered “academic” a voice and a chance to flourish;
- Giving “academic” children a chance to think outside the box and to see that non-academic pupils have inspiring ideas, too. (p. 35)

2.3.1 Background

It was noted earlier that the programme of activities in the first CISV Village was organised by staff members who had experience in American summer camps. The schedule included sports, arts and crafts, nature study, swimming and opportunities to entertain other participants with songs, dances and sketches about life in one's own country. The typical schedule of a Village remained rather similar as CISV expanded. After the earliest Villages, the volunteer leaders and staff members in CISV programmes have normally been interested individuals and, later, sometimes former youth participants, many without any formal background in education. In the early years, information about expectations and leadership roles was passed informally from those who took these roles one year to those who were responsible for them in the following year. However, in the 1980s it was becoming clear that a more structured system of leadership training was needed and an international seminar to establish basic standards for this was held prior to the International Board Meeting in Jacksonville, Florida, 1986. Commenting on papers from a subsequent follow-up leadership training workshop, Dagnelie (1994) noted:

Originally, especially in the first CISV Village in 1951, a team of professionals in education and the social sciences made up the programme staff and was responsible for programme development and evaluation during the Village. Only professional staff, it was felt, could steer the process of international / intercultural encounter The goals of the Village process were very explicitly educational and scientific: to teach the participants that they can live together as friends, and to prove to society at large that a group of eleven year olds can be an excellent model for intercultural peaceful coexistence.

Over the years, the emphasis has shifted more and more towards non-professional/ volunteer staff and adult delegates. A number of reasons can be given for this . . . [including]

1. CISV itself developed from a social science experiment to a world-wide family of friends
2. CISV also developed from an incidental group driven by a dream into a well developed organisation
3. Highly competent professional staff was not always available

4. The use of the adult delegates as programme staff had the advantage that they were emotionally closer to the children

Unfortunately, in the process, the educational content of the program did not always retain the highest priority. (p. 4)

Almost forty years into the development of CISV it was noted that the organisation's programmes were enjoyed by the great majority of participants and seemed to have benefits in developing independence and communicative abilities of participants. However, there was some concern, as noted by Dagnielie (ibid) that the educational content was not as strong as it could be. Dickhoff (1994) suggested,

. . . . the view that probably was held most commonly about CISV, was not so much that of an educational, but rather a kind of volunteer social programme that somehow contributed greatly to positive personal change, improved interpersonal relations and therefore - with a quantum leap! – to a more cooperative and peaceful world. (p. 24)

Re-organisation of the International Research Committee to an Educational Development and Research Committee in 1988 was a step in the developing emphasis on educational policies and content in CISV programmes. This gave one committee the responsibility to develop appropriate contemporary educational policies and documentation for all programmes in the organisation.

2.3.2 CISV Local work workshop 1990 and the Peace Education Circle

Towards the end of the 1980s there was growing interest in the promotion of locally organised CISV activities as *Local Work*. This often took the form of educational activities organised within or by a local Junior Branch, but sometimes also included adult members of the Branch / Chapter or involved work with members of Like Minded Organisations or other groups of young people. A workshop to develop

models for a more structured approach to Local Work was held prior to the International Board Meeting in France, 1990. At this workshop the then Chair of the International Educational Development and Research Committee presented a model for education in CISV under the six headings: Traditional Peace Education, International Global Education, Education for Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, Learning about Peoples and Cultures, Education about the Environment, Human Relations Education. A model of the educational aims of CISV and the proposed six goals is show below.

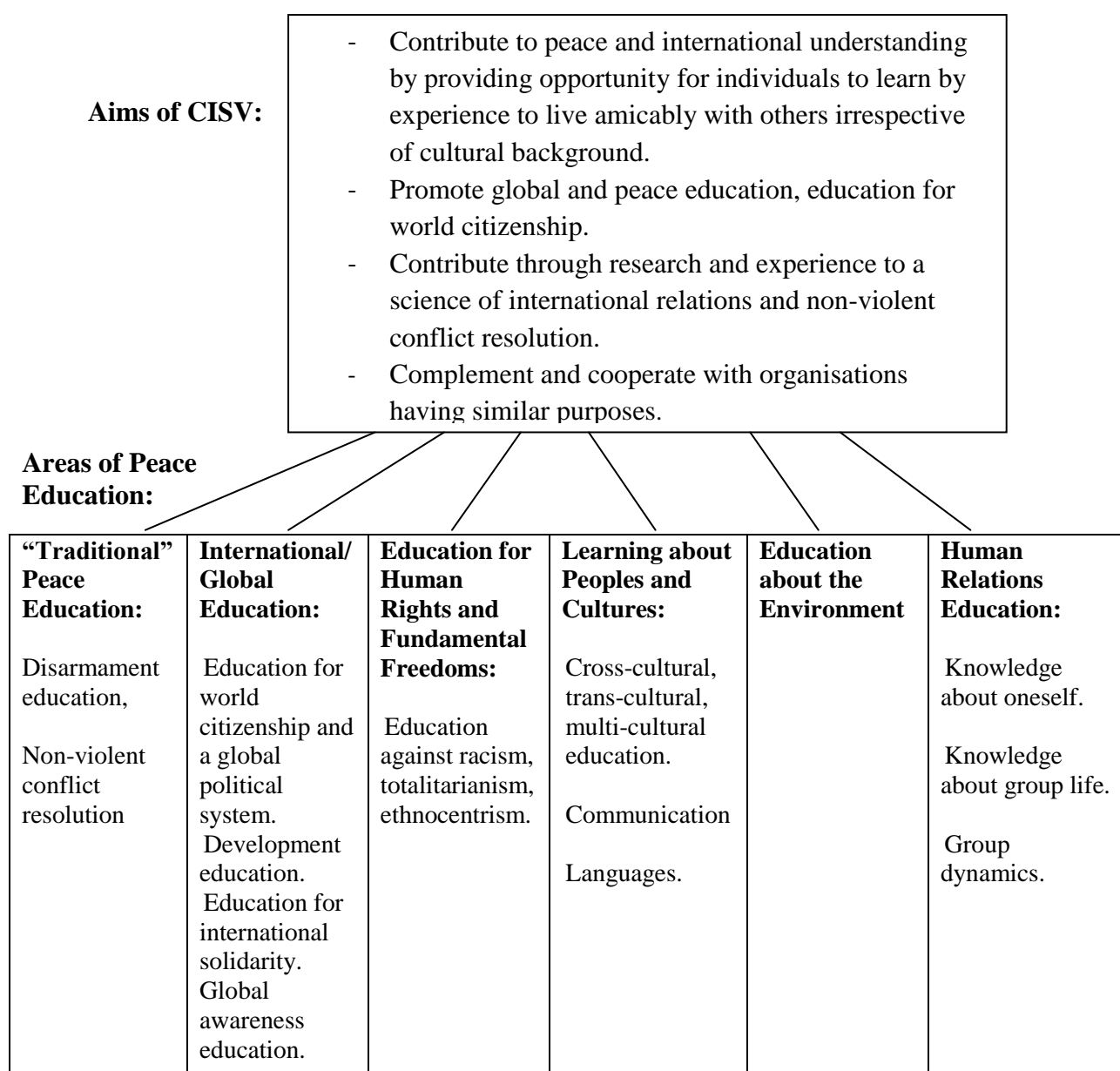


Figure 2.2: The 1990 Model for Peace Education in CISV

Over the following two years this model was revised and re-worked by the Chair of the International Local Work Committee to an eight segment circle and the subsequent model was formally approved at the International Board Meeting in 1992 as the *Peace Education Circle*. In subsequent years this was found useful by staff organising other programmes and it later became policy that educational activities in all CISV programmes should be planned to address one or more of the areas identified in this model, shown below.

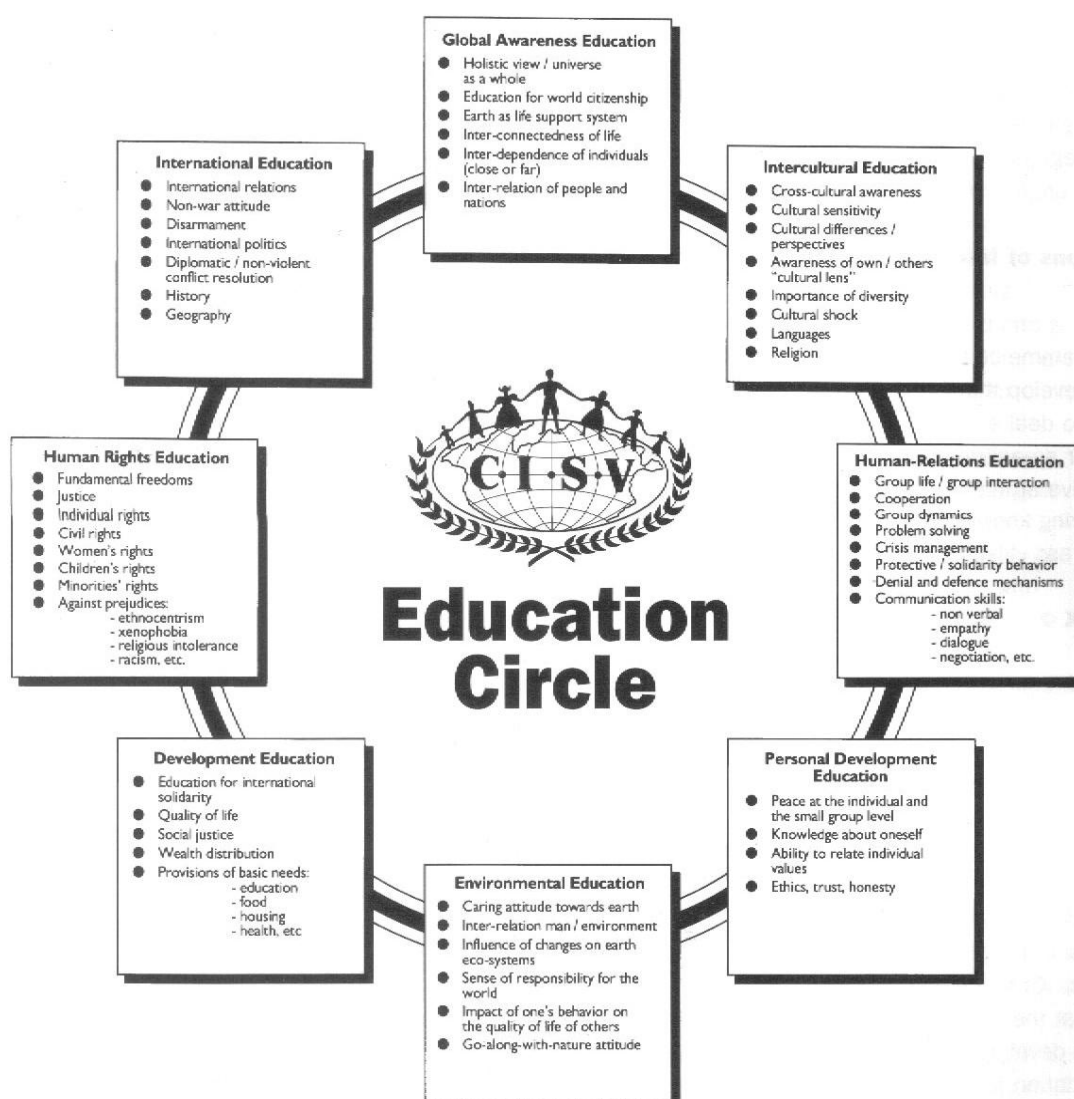


Figure 2.3: CISV Peace Education Circle, 1992

CISV members continued to use this model as the basis for educational content in all programmes, including the newest *Mosaic* programme which grew out of *Local Work* and was formally approved in 2005. Subsequently, it was analysed by an international group of CISV members working with the Education Officer to develop the content of the CISV Passport and Big Ed, explained in section 2.3.5, below.

2.3.3 Codifying CISV's Educational Curriculum

In the mid-1990s each of the Programmes organised by CISV had its own *Programme Guide*, a file of information detailing programme goals, legal and administrative procedures, hosting arrangements and appropriate preparation for participants. Some of these programme guides also had a chapter on programme activities. An informally duplicated booklet of activities, *The CISV Gamebook*, was used as reference by many adult leaders and other leaders or programme staff members were able to use previous experience in both CISV and other organisations as sources of potential programme activities. However, other than ensuring that 'name games' were played early in a programme so that participants got to know one another, there was still relatively little structure to the way in which different types of activity were used throughout a CISV programme. Realisation of the need to maximise the opportunities offered in the short term residential programmes offered by CISV motivated members of the EDR, working with the then Secretary General, to re-visit the original objectives of the organisation in order to promote CISV participation as an educational experience. To start this process, a review of the diverse descriptions of goals of each programme which had evolved in previous years was undertaken using a Delphi technique (Banks, Banks and Dickhoff, 1990). Articles in CISV's journal on transcultural education, *Interspectives*, actively promoted educational ideas and strategies, (e.g. Easen, 1991, 1994; Krampf, 1991). The CISV strategic plan for 1993 to 1996 specifically charged

the Educational Development and Research Committee with the responsibility to review the educational content of CISV programmes (CISV, 1993) and an external educational advisor, Dr Alvino Fantini (School of International Training, Brattleboro', VT, USA) was appointed to help with this task. His report, "At the heart of things: CISV's Educational Purpose" (Fantini, 1995) was presented to the CISV International Board at their annual meeting in 1995. In this report Fantini noted that in conducting an internal study:

. . . . everyone will re-educate him or herself to all aspects. Education . . . requires a continual process of reflection and analysis. It is never done once and for all time. Such a process ensures CISV's vitality by reviewing its internal precepts with external ones (with the related fields of education), by insuring the compatibility of its principal aims with those of the emergent field of intercultural communication, and by taking stock of where it has been and where it wishes to go in the future. (p. 8)

In a series of workshops in 1995 and 1996 members of the CISV EDR worked with the external education adviser to clarify and codify a first draft of *CISV Educational Principles*. The content of the written document, described in the next section, was presented to members of the International Board for comment in 1997 and the subsequent version was published more widely as a 28 page booklet (and printed as an insert to *Interspectives* Volume 16) in 1998.

2.3.4 Educational Principles 1998

CISV Educational Principles outlined the organisation's non-formal educational approach, opening with an analysis of the *Statement of Educational Purpose*:

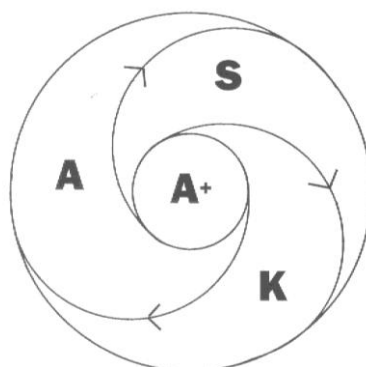
CISV's purpose is to prepare individuals to become active and contributing members of a peaceful society. CISV endeavours to stimulate the lifelong development of amicable relationships, effective communication skills, cooperative abilities and effective leadership towards a just and fair world.

CISV volunteer programmes and activities are planned to promote personal, cultural, intercultural and international learning. This enables individuals to

develop awareness of, and positive attitudes towards others, and the skills and knowledge to live, work and play with them, irrespective of cultural background.

CISV offers opportunities for interested children, young people, adults and families to explore relevant themes through independent, short term, non-formal educational activities organised in international, national and local contexts. These may be residential or non-residential settings and are offered to qualified participants irrespective of gender, race, religion, ethnicity, political affiliation, socio-economic background, or distinction of any other kind. (p. 4)

The document then outlined educational content of the existing programmes and noted the specific educational goals that had been identified by members of each international programme committee. Non-formal education in CISV was described as “interactive, participatory, action oriented, participant centred, fun, experiential, sensitive to cultural variation,” (p. 8), and an explanation of experiential methods was provided with a diagram of Kolb’s (1984) experiential learning cycle, illustrated at section 1.2.4 in the previous chapter. The development of intercultural competence was a key section of CISV Educational Principles, explaining that conventional education focuses on knowledge and some skills whereas intercultural competence also requires appropriate attitudes and awareness. This distinction used ideas noted in Chapter 1, Figure 1.2. Awareness was seen to be central to intercultural competence in that it affects the other three aspects and can also be developed through them, which the diagram below attempts to illustrate.



**Figure 2.4: CISV Model of Intercultural Competence:
Awareness + Attitudes, Skills and Knowledge**

Awareness, in its central role, was noted to be concerned with the self and one's relationship to others and to involve reflection and introspection. It was posited that:

An intercultural experience is provocative precisely because in looking outward (at something new and different), it causes us to look inward or inside ourselves. This introspection produces awareness, an important dimension of the intercultural educational experience. (CISV 1998, p. 11)

The *CISV Educational Principles* also covered such areas as responsibilities, ethics, communication, culture shock, and use of appropriate educational activities. Relevant factors were brought together in the “gemstone” model for educational programme development, shown below, and the various facets were explained for the information of volunteer adult leaders and CISV programme staff.

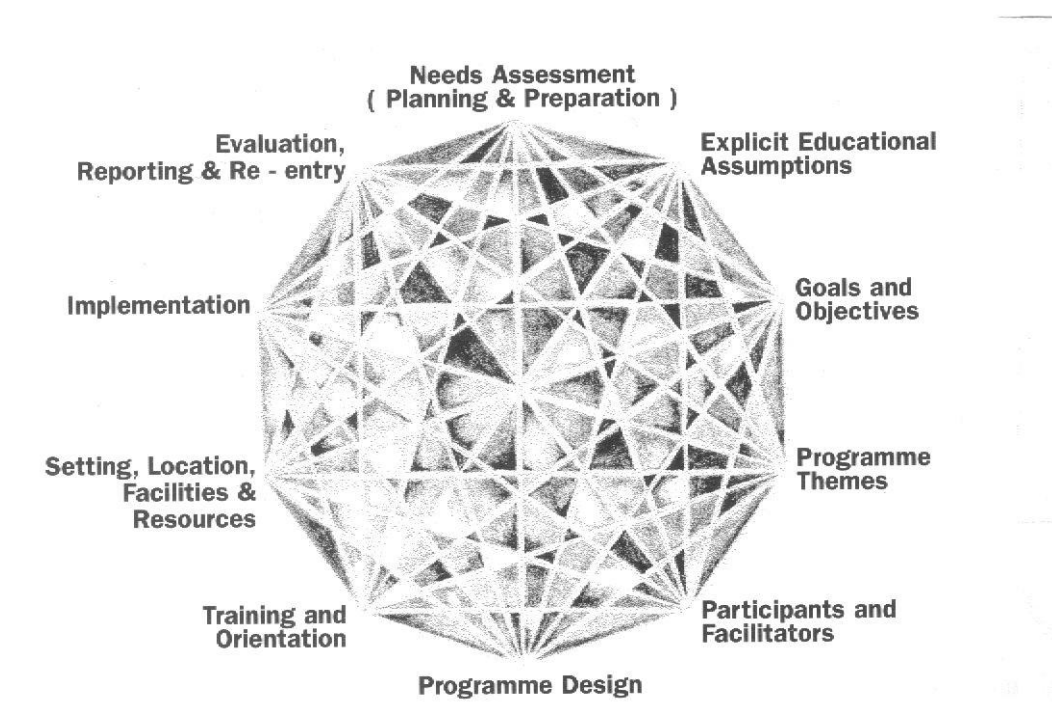


Figure 2.5: The CISV Gemstone Model for Programme Development (Educational Principles, Section 4)

CISV Educational Principles concluded with a section on quality assurance in CISV educational programmes but, reflecting Fantini's earlier statement, "Education . . . requires a continual process of reflection and analysis," (noted in section 2.3.3, above)

ended by stating that “. . .the pursuit of quality education in CISV will always be a continuing journey,” (p. 26).

Although carefully constructed, with clear explanations of specific terminology, this document was initially received with some scepticism, and described by some experienced, active CISV members as “too academic”. However, its use became embedded in CISV over the next few years. It was found to be particularly useful in international ‘training the trainers’ workshops from 2000 to 2009, to the extent that the chair of the international Pool of Trainers described it as “the most important document in CISV,” (comment in workshop discussion, November 2007).

2.3.5 CISV “Passport” and “Big Ed”

The *CISV Educational Principles* was Section T of the CISV InfoFile (a series of documents for the management of procedures and programmes in CISV) and was colloquially known as ‘Section T’, so when the Education Officer trialled a smaller, simplified document in 2008 it was named ‘Pocket T’. This was a short-lived document and did not get beyond the trial stage as more radical revisions ensued, but the concept of a ‘pocket’ version was retained in the subsequent *CISV Passport for Active Global Citizenship*, (CISV, 2009a), a 36 page 12.5cm by 9cm “mini book” which summarises CISV’s educational approach in “. . . a practical guide to what we do and how we do it,” (CISV Passport p. 2). This and the full guide to education, *CISV Big Ed: Big Education Guide for Active Global Citizenship*, (A5 size, 72 pages) (CISV, 2009b), were the outcomes of intensive work, particularly with leaders of the junior members of CISV, in late 2008, (Interview with the former Education Officer, 5 January 2011). This work helped to re-organise content from Section T, simplify the areas of educational focus and present the content in a user-friendly format. Multiple copies of the *CISV Passport*

were distributed to every National Association in early 2009 and *Big Ed* was available on-line from the same date, although with fewer copies printed. The *CISV Passport* is also available, on request, in a version where text can be translated to a local language so that the booklet can be used in local or national training by leaders, Junior Counsellors or CISV Seminar participants who are not fully fluent in English. In a local language it is also easier to use as advice for parents and those working with a local Junior Branch about CISV educational policies and appropriate practices.

The *Passport* and *Big Ed* each have eight sections which treat the same topics at differing levels of complexity. The section headings and sub headings from the more comprehensive *Big Ed* are:

1. *Peace Education and Active Global Citizenship:*
 - i. What is Peace Education?
 - ii. Development Education;
 - iii. Global Citizenship;
 - iv. Intercultural Education.
2. *CISV Statement of Purpose:*
 - i. Statement of Purpose;
 - ii. Educational Principles.
3. *ASK for Active Global Citizens:*
 - i. Attitudes, Skills and Knowledge;
 - ii. ASK for Educational Goals.
4. *Peace Education in CISV:*
 - i. Four Strands of Peace Education;
 - ii. The Library.
5. *Building Peace Education into our Programmes:*
 - i. What is a Theme?
 - ii. Linking activities to goals.
6. *Learning by Doing:*
 - i. "Learning by Doing";
 - ii. Four step approach;
 - iii. ASK for facilitators.
7. *How we know if we are good at what we are doing:*
 - i. What is Educational Evaluation?

- ii. Why should we do it?
- iii. How and when do we do it?
- iv. Using the goals;
- v. What is evidence?
- vi. Group Evaluation;
- vii. Who should do it?
- viii. Quality standards for education and training.

- 8. *Fitting it all together:*
 - i. Educational principles and approach.

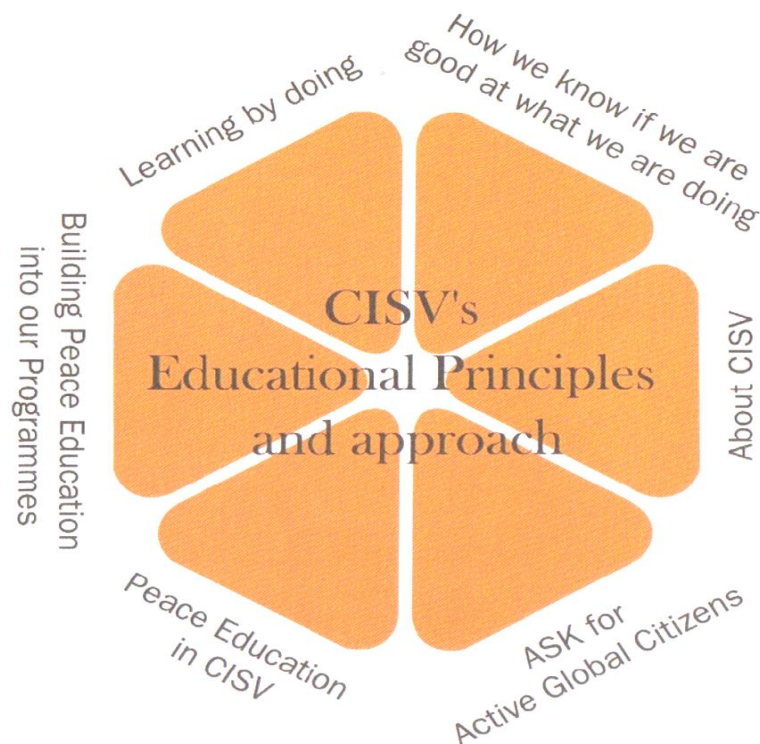


Figure 2.6: ‘Fitting it all together’ in CISV Educational Policy
(CISV Passport, p. 30)

A brief summary statement of Educational Purpose is now used: “CISV educates and inspires action for a more just and peaceful world,” (*Big Ed*, p. 12) and four educational principles are listed as:

- We appreciate the similarities between people and value their differences.
- We support social justice and equality of opportunity for all.
- We encourage the resolution of conflict through peaceful means.
- We support the creation of sustainable solutions to problems relating to our impact upon each other and the natural environment.
(ibid, p. 13)

These principles are reflected in the four educational content areas indicated: Diversity, Human Rights, Conflict and Resolution, and, Sustainable Development (ibid, p. 23), each of which is emphasised in programme content planning on an annual, rotating basis.

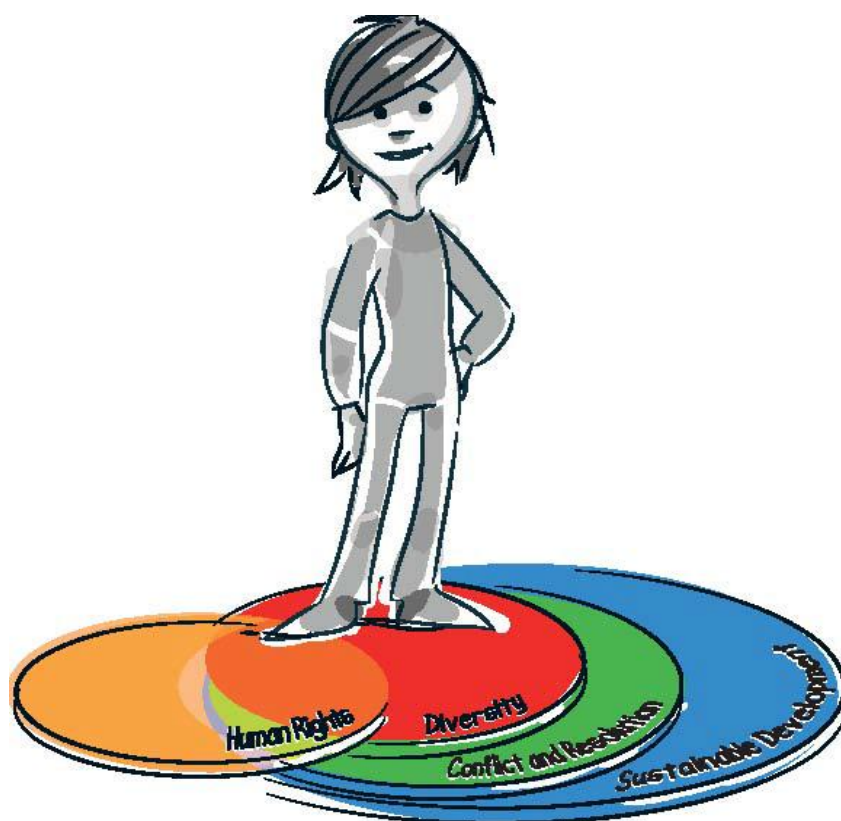


Figure 2.7: CISV Education Content Areas (*Big Ed*, p. 24)

Kolb's (1984) "Experiential Learning Cycle" (shown as Figure 1.1, in the previous chapter) has been adapted and is re-interpreted as a set of steps:

- Do: Take part in an activity, game, role play, etc. – a concrete experience planned by leaders or participants.
- Reflect: Individually, in pairs or small groups, thinking about the experience of the activity; possibly considering underlying motivation or what the activity was designed to achieve. Reflection can contribute to the evaluation process (described below).
- Generalise: Building on observations and reflection to consider what has been learned, what the experience may have meant for others, considering how the learning will be useful.

- Apply: New ASK(attitudes, skills and knowledge) may be useful in the short term or may only become part of the individual's behaviour at a later date (adapted from *Big Ed*, p. 39-40)

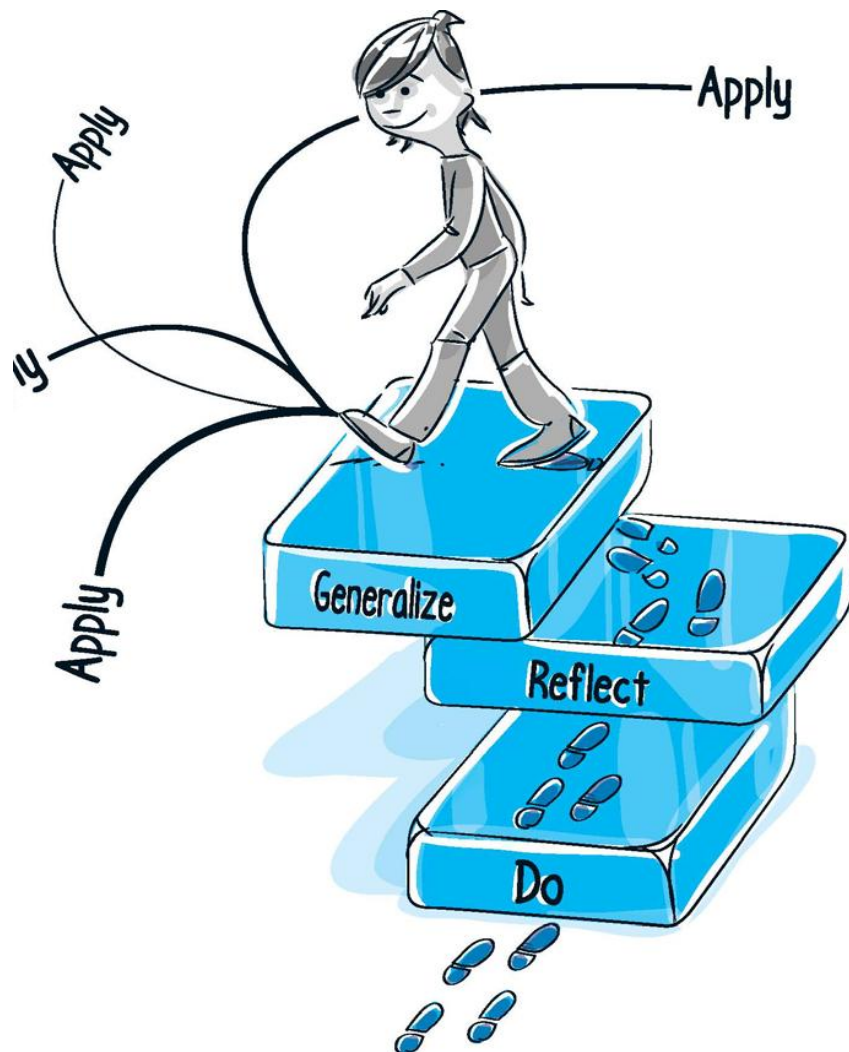


Figure 2.8: Learning by Doing (*Big Ed*, p. 38)

The section on “How we know if we are good at what we are doing” in *Big Ed* gives the reader a rationale for evaluation, and its value in informing decision making, improving practice and future planning, and, securing support (financial or in kind). It also explains the ways in which evaluation can show how the organisation is achieving its educational purpose through assessing the progress of participants and programmes, identifying what is done well so that this can be shared, and considering what can be improved so that appropriate action can be taken, (ibid, p. 50).

This section of *Big Ed* also considers evaluation as a quality assurance process in which achievement of the attitudes, skills and knowledge identified in programme goals can be recorded for programme monitoring (collection of evidence during the programme) and evaluation (collating evidence of achievement and looking for trends and patterns that might influence future decisions). The tool used for these processes, the Programme Director's Planning and Evaluation Form, and related supporting documents are discussed in more detail in the next section.

2.3.6 The Programme Director's Planning and Evaluation Form (PDPEF)

The Programme Director's Planning and Evaluation Form (PDPEF) was devised, in consultation with experienced CISV leaders and former volunteer members of host staff, as a tool that would bring together the preparation and planning needed for a CISV programme, attendance monitoring and reporting of programme issues (previously reported and submitted to International Office on separate forms), with the monitoring of programme progress and reporting the level of achievement of programme goal indicators. (For the version of the form used for Summer Camps in 2011, see appendix 1.) The form was designed to be used before the programme as a planning tool, during the programme for administrative and programme monitoring and planning purposes and at the end of a programme for evaluation and reporting, as explained in the on-line *Complete Notes to Educational Evaluation* and summarised in *Quick Notes* (see appendix 2). The proposed use of the form to support the work of the programme staff at the various stages of a programme is summarised in the table on the next page.

PDPEF Section	Content	Time for completion
1.Administration: Information for International Office	CISV Friends pre-registration Address list Attendance information Issues Health / Legal / Insurance Forms Arrival and departure information	Before During During During During Before
2.Education: Information for International Programme Committee, National Association and Education Dept.	To Plan: Programme theme and use of education content. Use of CISV educational tools Evidence to be collected (activities planned to achieve goals and indicators; information to be collected to demonstrate this achievement, i.e.: What will participants learn? How will they learn it? How will you know if it has been learned?) To Evaluate: Completion of Group Evaluation Form Completion of Individual Evaluation Forms	Before Before During & after During (normally leaders' responsibility)
3. Practical arrangements	Feedback on information relating to site, facilities, food, transportation, etc.	During and after
4.Recommendations and Risk Management	Optional information about exceptional leaders, causes for concern, health or other incidents	After
5. Media and Community Activities	Brief summary of any shared project and its impact on the partner organisation / LMO involved	After

Figure 2.9: Sections of the PDPEF and their phase of use

The use of this form was instituted in 2008, originally in Word format. Collation of results from the first round of forms was difficult and time-consuming so in subsequent years the collection of the data has evolved to a fillable pdf which can be saved and completed over the various stages of use before submission by the programme Director or a designated member of Host Staff within two weeks of the end of a programme. Combining planning, monitoring and evaluation in one document appears to be an innovative strategy, so as noted above, advice to support the use of the form was provided on-line and can be down-loaded in a package with the electronic form. (see: <http://www.cisv.org/resources/running-or-taking-part-in-educational-programmes/evaluation-and-research/evaluation-tools/>)

In the education section, achievement of programme goals is recorded in the Group Evaluation Form (GEF) section of the PDPEF for the purposes of global programme monitoring. Youth participants are not identified on this record other than by the name of their country and the designation F1, F2 for girls and M1, M2 for boys. (See Appendix 1 for a copy of the form required.) To facilitate completion of this form it is normal practice for an enlarged version (this time, including participants' given names) to be posted in the Leaders' Common Room on which any of the adults involved in the programme may record achievement of an indicator or observation of relevant behaviour by a participant that would indicate such achievement. Ideally, this should be done on a regular basis throughout the programme so that it is possible to see if a pattern of goal or indicator achievement is developing. Where this happens it is possible that some 'gaps' (indicators that are not being achieved) may be observed, which would suggest that specific activities could be planned to address these areas and, thus, balance the programme to ensure that opportunities are provided for all participants to achieve all of the indicators. Within each programme it is also possible to provide Individual Evaluation Forms (see appendix 3) on which leaders can record the progress of each participant in their delegation and comment on the rationale for recognising the participant's achievement / non-achievement or make notes about her / his on-going progress. However, these are not collected internationally so are not part of the permanent record of CISV International.

In summary, with regard to the educational purposes of CISV, the PDPEF Section 2 is intended to be used by programme directors and host staff to:

- plan how they will address educational content before their programme starts (PDPEF Education Section question 2.2),
- identify the types of evidence to be collected to demonstrate achievement of indicators (PDPEF question 2.3), and,

- monitor the progress of the programme through the use of the PDPEF Group Evaluation Form so that adjustments can be made and activities planned in order to address areas that need more attention.

Administrative and practical matters, risk management issues and media / community activities reported in other sections of the PDPEF are reviewed by staff members in International Office and action taken as necessary. Results from the education section are collated and summarised for programme committees in order that the members can maintain an overview of programme development and identify any training or development needs.

The group evaluation form used in a Summer Camp provided data for this study. In addition, the goal indicators identified for Summer Camp were used as the source of items for the purpose designed questionnaire, the development of which will be described in section 3.4.1, in the next chapter.

2.4 Statement of problem / Rationale for study

Previous sections have given accounts of earlier research and educational development in CISV. The following sections are designed to provide a more contemporary setting for the current research against the setting of that earlier background.

2.4.1 Contemporary perspectives on research in CISV

In section 2.2.1, above, it was suggested that the first CISV Village was a research project. Doris Allen arranged a substantial research programme and outcomes of this were reported in several journal articles and presentations (e.g. Allen 1951, 1956). However, the organisational climate in the 1980s, 1990s and early twenty first century

was sceptical towards ideas of research or evaluation despite the contemporaneous emphasis on evaluation in more formal education settings and the work undertaken by Baraldi (2009) and Watson (2008). Against this background the CISV Education Officer in post in 2009 proposed two research projects, one to evaluate the recently established ‘Training the Trainers’ system (Catania, 2011) and the other to evaluate the use of recently published educational tools and resources as contributing to the strategic goal: *To have high quality educational materials accessible to everyone at all levels of the organisation*, (Watson, 2012b). Work on these projects took place under the CISV Strategic Plan 2009 to 2012 and was reported to international representatives at the CISV Annual International Meeting in France, 2012.

During the fieldwork interviews with adult leaders and programme staff for the second of these projects, evaluating educational materials and tools, concerns emerged regarding the use of the Programme Director’s Planning and Evaluation Form (PDPEF). For many leaders and programme staff, the only section of the PDPEF with which they have contact is the Group Evaluation Form, a matrix of programme goal indicators against the names of participants, so the acronym ‘PDPEF’ is often used to refer to this rather than to the full form as detailed in section 2.3.6, above.

Recorded comments from twenty adults who had staff or leadership roles in various programmes in 2009 and 2010 frequently suggested that the form, in particular the group evaluation form in the education section, was seen as something just to be completed at the end of the programme for submission to International Office. It appeared that the group evaluation form was used at the end of a programme for a final evaluation, but was not being used to support planning, as originally designed. One programme director, when discussing completion of this form in a previous programme reported:

It was just like a really boring work to do . . . stressful at the end to fill out and, like, “What is your evidence?” “What is your evidence?”
(Village Director, 2009)

and a staff member suggested:

. . . It was mainly [used] at the end . . . there was(sic) a few of the leaders that used it throughout the Village but generally it was mostly at the end . . . I think, to be honest, they used it more to help staff with the more formalities at the end of the village. (Village staff, 2009)

The emergence of this impression generated the question: How was the PDPEF, in particular the Group Evaluation Form (GEF), being used in programmes? In order to answer the identified questions on youth learning and on use of the PDPEF / GEF, further study was needed and the section 2.5, below, will explain its development.

2.4.2 Research in CISV Summer Camps

It was noted earlier that the first CISV Village was, in itself, a research project with a detailed research protocol. Elements of that research process continued to be implemented with participants in Villages throughout the 1950s and a follow-up questionnaire based research study involving former CISV Village participants was undertaken in 1968 (Wright and Allen, 1969). However, the only substantive previous research involving Summer Camp participants was that undertaken by Baraldi (2009) in a detailed consideration of the interactions between diverse participants, particularly between adults and youth participants. The use of English as a *lingua franca* in Summer Camps would, potentially, make it easier for an English speaking researcher to observe educational activities and discussion in planning groups, as well as to use a questionnaire for participant responses. It might also be suggested that participants at the age of 14 or 15 would be able to use a self-reflection strategy more readily than Village participants, aged 11 years, who would typically be at a stage of transfer

between Piaget's "Concrete operational" stage and the stage of "Formal operations", in the latter of which abstract thought is more developed. (See: <http://ehlt.flinders.edu.au/education/DLiT/2000/Piaget/stages.htm>). Research into the educational impact of a Summer Camp might, also, be useful to CISV. Interest in use of a new type of questionnaire to evaluate learning in international programmes could be explored with young people at this age so the Summer Camp would provide a useful setting for such work.

2.5 Purposes of the study

As outlined in the previous section, it appeared useful to devise a strategy to assess the learning of youth participants in terms of the aspects of Intercultural Competence which formed the Summer Camp programme goals and their related indicators. If it was found useful, such a strategy might also be of value in other CISV programmes or for other organisations offering non-formal education programmes which aim to develop aspects of ICC, of global citizenship education or of peer learning (Siebel, 2013). Section 2.3.6, above, outlined the various sections of the PDPEF and noted that this was planned so that it could support pre-programme planning, during programme monitoring and end of programme evaluation.

The PDPEF was in use throughout CISV international programmes, but, as these vary in structure and age group, the Committees responsible for the different programmes had identified specific goals appropriate to each. Those in use for the Summer Camp programme at the date of the research are shown in Figure 2.10, on the next page.

These goals had been written as aspects of Intercultural Competence (ICC) which members of the International Summer Camp Committee felt to be appropriate for

development in participants at age 14 or 15 years. Goal one, *Develop intercultural awareness*, with indicators, a) Share own culture with the camp, and b) Learn about at least two other cultures through different activities, stems from the ethos of CISV that in sharing aspects of their own culture and in learning about other cultures participants acquire respect for and understanding of the cultures represented in the Summer Camp.

<p>Goal 1: Develop intercultural awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Share own culture with the camp b. Learn about at least two other cultures through different activities <p>Goal 2: Develop leadership skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Receive training on how to plan and lead an activity, before and during the first days of camp. b. Participate in planning and running activities. c. Contribute during group discussion. d. Suggest solutions and solve problems. <p>Goal 3: Develop self awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders. b. Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts. c. Express independent ideas to promote group development. d. Increase self confidence. <p>Goal 4: Develop cooperative skills.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Work together as a team in planning and leading activities. b. Help others to feel included in the group.

Figure 2.10: Summer Camp Goals and Indicators, 2011

It is hoped that (referring to earlier discussion of Kolb's experiential learning cycle) reflection on learning about cultures present in the Summer Camp can lead to generalised interest in other cultures with which participants may make contact. In working towards goal one, the members of each group of youth participants are also required to actively reflect on their home culture in order to prepare a cultural activity for other participants. This is a more active reflection than that posited by Fantini

(2006) when he argues that awareness, in the form of self-reflection, is central to ICC.

It may involve the identification and articulation of current issues as well as (or in place of) historical or “traditional” culture, as noted in the observations of cultural activities described in chapter five. In a similar way, Goal three, *Develop self awareness*, with indicators, a) Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders; b) Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts; c) Express independent ideas to promote group development; and, d) Increase self confidence, articulates aspects of self-reflection as well as communication and cooperation.

Goal two, *Develop leadership skills*, with indicators, a) Receive training on how to plan and lead an activity, before and during the first days of camp; b) Participate in planning and running activities; c) Contribute during group discussion; and, d) Suggest solutions and solve problems; supports the active development of ICC in that to achieve the indicators 2b, 2c, 2d, it is necessary, again, both to communicate and collaborate with other members of the relevant group. The indicators for Goal two might be seen to be closely related to those for Goal four, *Develop cooperative skills*, which has indicators, a) Work together as a team in planning and leading activities; and, b) Help others to feel included in the group. These indicators also reflect ideas suggested in Allport’s (1954) *Contact Hypothesis*, which influenced the foundation of CISV, as noted in section 2.2.1, above, by promoting cooperation in group membership and shared activities which work towards a common goal.

The PDPEF Group Evaluation Form is designed to facilitate monitoring of programme progress (in order to provide opportunities for participants to achieve all the indicators of programme goals) and to provide evidence for the final evaluation of the programme effectiveness. As stated earlier, the combination of planning and evaluation in one form is an innovative strategy and this project is planned to consider its

effectiveness by comparing the achievement of participants, as noted on the Group Evaluation Form, with their own perceptions of learning. It will also examine leaders' understanding of the use of the form through the analysis of interview data.

When considering the participants' perceptions of their own learning, it was noted that half of them had been involved in other CISV programmes. It was also reported that delegation members had met each other for preparation in their home countries prior to the Summer Camp in the case study and were already aware of some areas to be addressed in the programme, such as working in groups and sharing aspects of their own culture. Assessing their views of their own position in respect to the programme goal indicators at the beginning and end of the programme would have been the minimum needed, but for this project a questionnaire was specifically devised to probe the personal learning forecasts of the participants with regard to the programme goals and to examine their assessment of their own progress at the end of the programme. The development of the Predictive and Reflective Questionnaire devised for these purposes will be described in more detail in the next chapter.

2.6 Summary and research questions

CISV has grown in complexity and size with additional programmes developing since the first CISV Village held in 1951. The organisation now has almost 9000 international participants each year (CISV, 2012). Over the more than sixty years since the origin of CISV, the educational policies and practices have evolved to be appropriate to the different types of programme. Clarification and documentation of CISV's educational approach over the last twenty years has been designed to support the work of those who take volunteer leadership roles. A new format for programme planning, monitoring and evaluation (the PDPEF) was introduced in 2008. This has

stimulated questioning of what the youth participants perceived themselves to be learning in a programme and, thence, ideas for the development of a Predictive and Reflective Questionnaire (PaRQ, to be described in section 3.4.1). There was also some interest in whether the form designed to facilitate monitoring of the programme development (the Group Evaluation Form) might be being used in a more restricted way than originally planned. Against this background three primary research questions and associated sub questions emerged:

1. How did the youth participants perceive the goals and outcomes of their programme?

- 1.1 How did the youth participants evaluate their own achievements?
- 1.2 Were the youth perceptions of their own development in line with their expectations?
- 1.3 What did the youth participants report in the narrative spaces as the principal outcomes of their programme participation?

2. How did the adult leaders perceive the goals and outcomes of the programme?

- 2.1 What were the adult expectations of youth participant learning?
- 2.2 How did the adult leaders perceive the youth participants' achievement of programme goals and indicators?
- 2.3 How did the use of evidence from the achievement / non-achievement of goals and indicators impact on programme planning?

3. Did adult leaders and youth participant evaluations of learning agree?

- 3.1 Did the self-perceptions of their achievement by youth participants align with perceptions of their leaders?

3.2 Were there specific areas of disagreement between youth scores and leaders' scores?

The development of strategies and tools to explore these questions will be described in Chapter 3. Subsequent chapters will describe the data collection, describe data analysis, present the results and offer some discussion of these.

Chapter 3

Methodology

3.1 Introduction to the methodology

The previous chapter considered the origin and growth of an organisation offering short term intercultural programmes of non-formal learning, CISV. A review of pedagogical development over the sixty years of the organisation and recent documentation of educational policies and practices introduced a focus on programme monitoring and evaluation procedures, crystallised in the use of the innovative Programme Director's Planning and Evaluation Form (PDPEF). The potential for youth participants to engage in self-evaluation of their learning and a comparison of their perceptions of learning with those of the adult leaders was suggested and questions arising from this were set out as the research questions for this thesis. This chapter will consider the researcher's perspective and ethical issues of qualitative research with young people, then discuss the background to, and rationale for, the selection of appropriate research methods, and describe the development of related tools, in particular a Reflective and Predictive Questionnaire.

3.2 Researcher roles and ethical behaviour

In any research involving people there are ethical considerations, which may depend on the type of intervention. These will be discussed in section 3.2.2, but prior to that it is useful to consider the role of the researcher in this project in order to provide a background for the ethical requirements.

3.2.1 The role of an “inside” researcher

The role of the researcher in a social science project cannot be ignored. In this case it involved participation for a few days at the beginning and end of the case study, an international, residential, educational programme for groups of four participants, plus an adult leader, from each of nine different nations. The researcher had extensive knowledge and experience of the organisation, CISV, as a former Village participant at age 11 and leader / staff member in later Villages, plus organisational experience at local, national and international levels. However, this was her first experience both of a Summer Camp and of the practical use of the Programme Director’s Planning and Evaluation Form as well as the Predictive and reflective Questionnaire designed specifically for this project. Smyth and Hoolian (2008) argue that

... research conducted from within is worthwhile and special because it can help to solve practical problems. ... it confronts us and others with our assumptions, perceptions and their consequences, it enables us to learn, reflect and act and it insists that we engage with what and who we are curious about. Above all, it is about learning and making a difference. (p. 34)

As an internal member with a range of experience in the organisation this was the perspective of the researcher. It was, however, recognised that the work done in this one programme might be of interest to other members of the larger CISV community so there was responsibility both to ensure rigorous standards of confidentiality with respect to programme participants and to represent their perceptions and views clearly to the wider audience. In addition to being appropriate research practice, if any of the information gathered were to be used as the basis of decision making within the wider organisation at a later stage, it was essential that the research should show: “. . . rigour, robustness, transparency of process and method, . . . consistent approaches to data gathering and analysis, a clear chain of evidence and ethical practices,” (ibid, p. 36).

In introducing the use of a new tool for self-evaluation of learning among the youth participants, this project might have been considered to be a form of participative action research as the researcher was an insider to the global organisation. Coughlan and Brannick (2001) suggest, “Action research is about undertaking action and studying that action as it takes place. It is about improving practice through intervention . . .” (p119) However, as she was not a full participant throughout the whole Summer Camp the normal view of participant action research as change brought about while immersed in organisational progress would not be accurate. Full participation might also have added difficulties due to becoming “too close to the people and situations you are researching,” (ibid, p. 56). This was avoided as the researcher was only involved for four days at the beginning of the programme and three days at the end. Such brief involvement might have posed problems for someone unfamiliar with practices within CISV programmes, but previous knowledge of organisational conventions was an advantage when contact was limited to these short periods.

The insider position of the researcher could also be seen as useful, in the context of this organisation, when engaging the cooperation of both youth participants and leaders as “fellow CISVers”. As Heron and Reason(2001) claim, “We believe that good research is research conducted *with* people rather than *on* people,” (p. 144) and this belief was present in the way in which youth participants were encouraged to be open and honest in their responses so as to contribute to potential future developments within the organisation. Similarly, Friedman (2001) discusses “creating communities of inquiry within communities of practice” (p. 132), which might be seen as an abstraction of the way in which leaders – as members of a CISV community of practice – were openly invited to discuss the progress of their delegation members towards the programme goals and to give critical comment on the use of the evaluation system (PDPEF / GEF). In this sense they were invited to “critically inquire into their own

scientific practice” (ibid, p. 133) using the shared knowledge and vocabulary in their role, developed through interaction between more experienced and less experienced leaders evolving a community of practice.

In summary, the researcher was an “insider” to CISV as a global organisation and had useful knowledge and experience of organisational practices which made it possible to engage with youth and adult members of the Summer Camp, and to encourage them to see their roles as “co-researchers” (Heron and Reason, p. 144). However, she was an “outsider” in terms of Summer Camp experience and, specifically, was not fully immersed in the programme at the centre of the research. This distancing helped to retain the objectivity needed for the research purposes.

3.2.2 Ethics in research with young people

The principles of ethical behaviour by researchers are based on responsibility towards the research participants or subjects. They include the observation of all general health and safety conditions and appropriate care for participants. In Britain this includes DBS (formerly CRB) clearance for anyone who is working with children or vulnerable adults. Special care is needed if interviews with young people or one-to-one work are involved, although such work was not needed in the current project. It is appreciated that participants in qualitative studies that involve comparison of before and after “pencil and paper” work (as in part of the current study) may need to use their names on their response forms in order for comparisons to be made. However, individuals should not be identified in reporting results. This also applies to information provided in interviews; where names are used in conversation they should not be included in any transcripts used in reporting data. Similarly, in descriptions of conduct in activities observed during the research, a code or a pseudonym should be

used as participants should not be identified by name. In some reporting it might be considered admissible to use the name of the participant's country plus a code, but in this work the countries have also been coded in order that leaders, who were interviewed as part of the research, would also be anonymous. Participants are entitled to an explanation of the purposes of the research and of what will be required of them, although the researcher may have to balance the level of detail in the explanation against any potential effects that the explanation may have on the outcome. Following such an explanation of its purposes the potential participants should have the option as to whether or not they contribute to the research. They should also be advised that they can withdraw at any point if they so wish.

Dornyei (2007) acknowledges the variation in requirements for participant agreement in research in different countries. He argues that educational research does not generally run the risk of doing severe harm to participants, as might be possible in some medical or psychological research. With this in mind, he suggests that, whenever possible, in the school setting the decision about participation should be largely borne by the teacher with parents normally being informed and, in "passive assent", advised that the absence of a response implies consent to participation, (p. 70). In CISV the parents or guardians of participants are required to sign a form which gives legal responsibility for care of their child to the delegation leader and includes permission for several other potential occurrences. One of these is the possibility of research in the programme and the text for this clause is given below.

Part 11: Research on CISV Programmes

In addition to its educational programmes, CISV works to promote research in the field of intercultural education and relations. I give permission for my child to participate in approved research projects. Unless my specific parental consent is obtained, children will not be identified by full name. For further information, please see CISV International's Amended Research Guidelines (Info-File R-04) available at <http://resources.cisv.org>.

Figure 3.1: Extract from Youth Legal Information Form re parental permission for participation in research

In addition to this, participants should have the purpose and the process of research data collection explained to them so that they understand that they have a choice as to whether or not they participate and that they can withdraw at any point. If they decide to participate, they are then asked to sign an agreement to this effect and are provided with a copy of the agreement. Key sentences used in the current project are given in the box below and the full text of the agreement is given in appendix 4.

This study is part of my MPhil/PhD degree in the Department of Applied Linguistics, Birkbeck, University of London. It is supervised by Dr Zhu Hua who may be contacted at the above address and telephone number. The study has received ethical approval.

This study wants to know what **you** think about the CISV Programme in which you are taking part this summer. **Your** ideas are very important to CISV to help us to improve programmes.

No other people will see your questionnaire so you can be completely honest.

Your name will not be used in any report written about this study.

Please sign in the space below to show that you understand that your answers will be kept confidential and that you agree to take part in the project.

Figure 3.2: Youth participation agreement

Research conducted in CISV will be reported to responsible international volunteers in their roles as committee members and results may have implications for educational development within specific types of programme or across the organisation. Summaries of research may be published via links on the CISV International website for the information of interested individuals, sharing with LMOs, or promotion of CISV as an educational organisation. Whether the research is to be viewed from the perspective of a member of CISV or from the perspective of an “outsider” these declarations should be respected and the anonymity of participants should be ensured.

3.3 Methodology and methods

At this point it is important to distinguish between ‘methodology’ and ‘methods’, both of which will be addressed in this chapter. An initial google search brings up the University of Manchester Faculty of Humanities advice that methodology “implies more than simply the methods you intend to use to collect data. It is often necessary to include a consideration of the concepts and theories which underlie the methods.” Similarly, Clough and Nutbrown (2007) suggest that “one of the tasks for a methodology is to explain and justify the particular methods used in a given study,” (p28). Bitchener (2010) also notes that descriptions of the data collection and data analysis procedures should be included in a methodology chapter, (p. 111). Section 3.3, therefore, provides some background to the selection of methods used in the research project and a brief outline of the proposed methods of data analysis, while the methods used and development of the related tools are described in Section 3.4.

3.3.1 Background to the research

It has been suggested in earlier parts of this thesis that the Summer Camp in which this research was implemented is considered as a case study. Although there are stated programme rules and educational policies, and shared practices, in CISV, each programme has a unique group of participants, leaders and staff, so there are inevitable differences. As a case study, this thesis records and discusses findings from one programme and, in this sense, may provide pointers to aspects of CISV programmes or procedures that might need further investigation if such findings are to be seen to have wider implications. However, findings from the case study cannot be taken to be immediately applicable to the whole organisation or even to all Summer Camps, although they might provide indication of areas that need further exploration. As noted

by Stake (1995), “The real business of case study is particularization, not generalization . . .” (p. 8) Similarly, Yin (2009) suggests that:

A case study is an empirical enquiry that

- Investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real life context, especially when
- The boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident (p. 18)

As answers to questions in a case study of one Summer Camp, the results gathered in this research then pose further questions as to whether or not the findings can be generalised to other Summer Camps or to different programmes in the range of those provided by CISV or any similar organisation.

In the current case there is proposed in-depth investigation of the participants’ learning in the context of non-formal education in a CISV Summer Camp. In such a camp the experiences of living as a community for three weeks, working in groups to plan activities for fellow participants and engaging in the activities themselves, are intricately related. In this case the phenomenon of learning is closely bound up with various aspects of the context in which it is presumed to have taken place. Yin (ibid) posits that, in this real life context the research may need to use “multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion . . .” (p. 18), as will be suggested in the discussion of methods in section 3.3.3, below.

Trying to ‘tease out’ the learning in the context of such a short-term intercultural programme as a CISV Summer Camp might be seen as one of the “complex and often novel” questions in which Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006) suggest that emergent methods may be useful, and for which they suggest that it may be necessary to create new tools (c.f. PaRQ) or even new concepts to answer such questions, (p. xi). With another perspective on emergent design, Christie, Montrosse and Klein (2005) argue

that “the purpose of emergent design is to determine programme effectiveness,” (p. 272) and posit that emergent design can be particularly useful in formative evaluations for the development of an organisation. It could be argued that this would also apply to the development of an educational programme. Dick (2001) compared grounded theory and action research, arguing that both are among research strategies that “are explicitly designed to be emergent: . . . to be data-driven rather than theory-driven,” (p. 1). In the work discussed in this thesis the concept of an emergent design has been useful, particularly in the analysis of interview data, but also when comparisons from the questionnaire showed some features which suggested ideas that required re-visiting the data from a different perspective. There was sufficient flexibility in the design to adapt strategies as information emerged and to use the data in various ways to answer the research questions. Put simply, this thesis is exploring the development of theory around a new evaluation tool (rather than testing existing theory) with regard to PaRQ, and probing perceptions of the purpose of an existing tool (PDPEF), and so might be considered to be developing emergent theory.

3.3.2 Participant self-evaluation

It was noted in chapter one (section 1.6.3) that strategies for youth self-evaluation in international settings appear to be limited. Dubiski and Peters (2011) and Ilg (2013) reported a self-evaluation strategy used with older teenagers in international youth encounters in Europe. This strategy used a questionnaire which included questions developed from the group leaders’ goals for the encounter but did not have any open response element. Earlier work in CISV (Dickhoff, 1994; Jiang Yan, 2010; Zhu Hua, Jiang Yan and Watson, 2011) used questionnaires addressing the learning of intercultural competence, complemented by open questions.

However, the current project was planned to examine what the youth participants themselves considered they had learned in specific areas, identified as Summer Camp programme goal indicators (rather than the broader areas of intercultural learning used in the studies mentioned above), and to encourage the participants to reflect on their learning in order to write, in narrative spaces, about what they perceived to be their own most important learning. It was also planned to compare the youth participants' own perceptions of learning with the adult leaders' views on participant achievement.

3.3.3 Data collection methods

It was appreciated that the participants in the current case study programme, from nine different countries and with different background, education and experience, would come to the programme with varying degrees of pre-existing competence in the aspects of intercultural competence identified as programme goals and indicators. To gain some appreciation of participants' learning, it was necessary to consider their "starting position" at the beginning of the programme as well as their self-report of learning at the end of the programme. Note had also been taken of Jiang Yan's (2010) findings that scores from one of her 12 respondents appeared to regress, of Bennett's (2009) and Jackson's (2009) comments on inflated opinions of intercultural competence among the subjects of their work and of Kruger and Dunning's (1999) suggestion that learning might help one to realise how little one had known previously. To explore the youth participants' conception of their abilities at the beginning and end of the programme, and to see if there was a possible way to mitigate the apparent regression reported in other studies, a new form of questionnaire was needed. This new questionnaire should be designed to facilitate comparison of the youth participant perceptions of their own learning with the leaders' records of their achievements, be simple enough for

completion by young people aged 14 for whom English was an additional language, and be quite brief so that completion was neither tedious for the young participants nor disruptive to the progress of the educational programme.

A questionnaire simply focussed on programme goal indicators, however, might prove restrictive. It was possible that the participants themselves might believe they had learned other things or may consider some aspects of their learning to be particularly important. Ideas about other things that they had learned might be gathered in a variety of ways, including unstructured interviews, discussion in small groups or self-reports in writing. In this case study it was decided to use the last of these three options, self report in writing, as potentially the most ‘personal’ of the strategies. Writing such a self-report would seem to be less susceptible to peer influence than discussion in small groups, as well as being time-effective.

Youth participant perceptions of their learning at the end of the programme could be compared with the adult leaders’ views of their achievement, as recorded on the group evaluation form. However, it was suggested that this form was not always used in the way intended and that further investigation of its use would be valuable. In this case, as there were only nine leaders, short, semi-structured, interviews would be a practical way to elicit information on the use of this form both in the current programme and in any previous programmes in which the leaders had been involved.

Using data derived from both beginning and end of programme participant questionnaires, scored on a Likert scale, and from open question responses from youth participants and interviews with adult leaders, this study adopted a mixed methods research model. (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007)

Responses in leader interviews were transcribed and written answers given by youth participants in their narrative spaces were typed out for ease of analysis. The

leader interview comments and youth participant comments were then coded for emerging ideas and explored qualitatively. Responses to the youth questionnaires, recorded on a Likert scale, were considered for graphical display and the use of simple statistics. The significance of change in beginning to end of programme scores for learning was checked using an on-line t-test (<http://www.graphpad.com/quickcalcs/ttest1/>). The use of both quantitative and qualitative data to give different perspectives on the same learning experience, constituted a form of “triangulation” (Creswell and Plano Clark, pp 63 – 64). In this, some data from the narrative spaces could be used to corroborate or assist in the interpretation of the questionnaire findings. Likewise, leaders’ written comments on youth participant achievement of indicators, noted on Individual Evaluation Forms, could be used to corroborate or illuminate the simple scores recorded on the Group Evaluation Form. Using a qualitative research strategy, data from the open questions and interviews were subject to thematic analysis, which is considered by Braun and Clarke (2006) to be “seen as a foundational method for qualitative analysis,” (p. 78).

3.4 Construction of the research instruments

The research instruments used for this project were specifically designed, based on the goals set out for Summer Camp and, more precisely, on the indicators for those goals. The development of research tools for use with youth participants and with the adult leaders is described in the following sections.

3.4.1 The learning evaluation tool (PaRQ)

It was noted in Section 3.2.3, above, that in order to gather the youth participant views on their learning and on what they *felt* they had learned, a new form of

questionnaire was needed. The practical constraints on this included minimising disruption to the Summer Camp programme, as well as consideration of the language level of the 14 year old participants, who came from nine different countries, with seven different home languages. To make comparison of youth perceptions and adult views of youth learning as straight forward as possible, the core of the questionnaire was composed of statements constructed from the indicators set out for the Summer Camp programme goals, arranged so that participants could mark their level of (dis)agreement with each statement on a seven point Likert scale.

01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Summer Camp
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan and run activities
05. I can contribute to group discussions
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand
10. I am confident in what I do
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan and lead activities
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans

Figure 3.3: Statements used on youth participant questionnaires

In order to explore the participants perceptions of their level of agreement with each statement and any changes they experienced during the three-week programme, as well as noting where they currently felt themselves to be, they were asked, at the beginning, to predict where they felt they would be at the end. At the end of the programme, in addition to marking their “current” position, they were asked to reflect

and state where they felt they had been at the beginning. The use of these Predictive and Reflective strategies was the basis for the acronym used for the *Predictive and Reflective Questionnaire, PaRQ*. Although the statements used for the section of the questionnaire scored on a Likert scale were the same at the beginning and end of the programme, the questionnaires were not identical. At the beginning, participants were asked about any previous CISV programme experience and at the end of the programme they were asked to respond to two questions:

- Please tell us a few things that you learned by coming to the Summer Camp.
- Now please tell us what you learned about yourself by coming to this Summer Camp.

Participants were to be encouraged to answer these questions as honestly as possible when writing their answers in these “narrative spaces”. Copies of the beginning and end questionnaires are provided in appendix 5 and appendix 6.

3.4.2 Tools to record leaders’ perceptions of youth participant learning

To help in comparing the leaders’ reporting of their delegates’ learning, a short questionnaire was also designed for the nine leaders to complete at the beginning of the programme. This, similarly, was based on statements derived from the programme goal indicators so that comparison could be made with the way in which delegation members were later scored on the Group Evaluation Form (GEF) of the PDPEF. The short leader questionnaire, using the statements shown below with a scale on which to mark zero to four, asked each leader to note how many members of their delegation they felt had already achieved the relevant indicator statement, using a cross, and how many they felt would achieve it by the end of the programme by using a question mark. To help in planning the interviews to be conducted later, these questionnaires also asked for a list

of any other CISV programmes in which the leader had participated. The questions in the beginning of programme leader questionnaire, for comparison with information on the GEF, are shown in Figure 3.4, below. Appendix 8 shows the full questionnaire.

01. Members of my delegation can share their culture with other people
02. Members of my delegation know about other nationalities at the Summer Camp
03. Members of my delegation are trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp
04. Members of my delegation use the experiential learning cycle to plan and run activities
05. Members of my delegation can contribute to group discussions
06. Members of my delegation are good at suggesting clear solutions to problems
07. Members of my delegation can lead parts of the programme without adult assistance
08. Members of my delegation use their personal feelings and thoughts in debriefing
09. Members of my delegation can make their ideas clear so that others understand
10. Members of my delegation are confident in what they do
11. Members of my delegation can cooperate with others to plan and lead activities
12. Members of my delegation can make sure that other participants feel included in group plans

Figure 3.4: Questions in beginning of programme Leader Questionnaire

Leaders would be aware of the purposes of the research project from the explanation given in their participation agreement so would already have some understanding of the purpose of their interview. However, to ensure that the necessary topics were covered in these relatively informal interviews, an *aide memoire* was drafted for the use of the researcher. This was not to be used as an interview schedule but to be a reminder or prompt if necessary. The interviews were designed to explore each leader's views on the use of the PDPEF in any previous leadership roles, as well as their current role, and to consider how they had evaluated the learning of their delegation members, both in regard to recording achievement of goal indicators and at a more individual level.

Introduction: Reminder that this is a CISV approved project and thanks for help.

Topics for discussion:

Any previous CISV leadership roles? Which type of programme and when?

For past programme:

- How did activities within the programme develop or change as it moved on?
- What resources did leadership or planning groups use to help this development?
- How was the PDPEF used in that programme? (Throughout or end only?)

For current programme:

- How well do you feel activities within the programme have developed or changed as it moved through the different phases?
- What resources did leadership or planning groups use to help this development?
- How have you used the PDPEF? Was it used to inform planning of activities / areas to emphasise?
- How did leaders decide if they had seen appropriate behaviour to record achievement of indicators?
- Other comments on PDPEF / evaluation of learning in this programme?

How do you think we could improve on the evaluation of participants' learning in CISV programmes?

Thank you!

Figure 3.5: Topics to be discussed in Leader Interviews

In the same way as parents or guardians do for youth participants, Leaders in CISV programmes sign a legal form which includes a clause confirming their agreement to research in the programme they will attend. The relevant clause is given below.

Part 9: Research on CISV Programmes

In addition to its educational programmes, CISV works to promote research in the field of intercultural education and relations. I agree to participate in approved research projects. Unless my specific consent is obtained, I will not be identified by full name. For further information, please see CISV International's Amended Research Guidelines (Info-File R-04) available at <http://www.cisv.org/resources/>.

Figure 3.6: Extract from Adult Legal Information Form

In order to demonstrate compliance with appropriate ethical standards and good practice in research, an explanation of the project was given and leaders' consent forms were offered for signature at the beginning of the programme, when the initial questionnaires were to be completed. The text of the agreement is given below and the full form is in appendix 7.

If you agree to participate you will agree a convenient time and place for me to interview you for about 20 minutes. You are free to stop the interview and withdraw at any time.

A code will be attached to your data so it remains totally anonymous.

Information from our interview may be included with that from others and written up in a report of the study for my degree. You will **not** be identifiable in the write up or any publication which might ensue.

Figure 3.7: Text from leader's information / agreement form

3.4.3 Observations

In addition to use of the youth participant PaRQ, the initial leader questionnaires and data recorded on the PDPEF, researcher participation during the first four days and for three days at the end of the programme would provide opportunity to observe a range of programme activities. At the beginning of the programme this would include a leader pre-camp training day and the introductory days for the youth participants. At the end of the programme it would include some of the final meetings of planning groups and the educational activities designed by some groups. Observations during these meetings and activities should be noted as soon as possible, but notes would be made discreetly, usually out of sight of participants, so that this did not affect the behaviour of those involved. These notes would later be interrogated for qualitative evidence, for example, at the beginning of the programme notes should be made of the leaders' discussion on the agreement of evidence for achievement of goal indicators, and of training and introductory activities. At the end of the programme notes would be

made of activities observed and of their apparent outcomes. A summary of the data collection processes at the different phases of the Summer Camp is provided below.

Phase one: Beginning of programme	Questionnaires	Leaders: record of delegation achievement / forecast of achievement at end of programme. Youth: Predictive phase of PaRQ
	Observations	Leaders: training activities; discussion of use of PDPEF Youth: initial activities planned by leaders
Phase two: End of programme	Questionnaires	Leaders: completed Group Evaluation Form of PDPEF & related Individual Evaluation Forms Youth: Reflective phase of PaRQ, including narrative spaces
	Interviews	Semi-structured interviews with leaders
	Observations	Activities organised by mixed planning groups Camp meeting or any national activities planned in last three days Leaders' completion of GEF

Figure 3.8: Summary of data to be collected at beginning and end of programme

3.5 Chapter summary

This chapter has considered the researcher's perspective as an insider to the global organisation, CISV, but without previous experience of Summer Camp participation, and has discussed the importance of various ethical considerations. It then moved on to provide the methodology for the current project and to consider the methods to be used and the development of research instruments. The next chapter will describe the data collection and the use of those research instruments.

Chapter 4

Data collection

4.1 Introduction

This chapter sets out to show how the methodology discussed in the previous chapter was applied in a practical situation. It describes the emergence of the project reported in this thesis from earlier research projects in CISV and discusses the implementation of the research strategy in the case study. This included short periods of observation at the beginning and end of the programme, during which the other aspects of data collection could be undertaken. Data collected included:

- beginning of programme youth participant questionnaires;
- end of programme youth participant questionnaires plus narrative comments on their learning;
- forecast questionnaires for adult leaders;
- leaders' completion of the Group Evaluation Form section of the Programme Director's Planning and Evaluation Form;
- leaders' comments on Individual Evaluation Forms;
- recorded discussion with leaders in semi-structured interviews; and,
- field notes and observations.

4.2 Emergence of the research project

The main focus of this thesis is on the learning of the 36 participants from nine countries in a short term, intercultural programme for age 14 years, evaluated through the use of a purpose designed Predictive and Reflective Questionnaire (PaRQ). The youth participant perceptions of their own learning were also compared with the nine adult leaders' views of the achievements of their delegation members. In contrast to the earlier research in CISV (cited in Chapter 2), which generally focused on participants in

the multilingual Village programme for age 11, this research project would be more practical in the Summer Camp programme for ages 14 or 15 where English is used as a *lingua franca*. It also provided an opportunity for research into previously unexplored aspects of learning in this older age group of CISV participants, plus the opportunity to explore the potential of an evaluation strategy that may be of use in other situations in CISV or in other organisations which offer programmes of non-formal learning.

Work on an earlier research project to review the use of recently introduced educational resources in CISV (Watson, 2012b) had stimulated the question: Was the Programme Director's Planning and Evaluation Form (PDPEF), introduced in 2008, being used for *all* the purposes for which it was initially designed? Unstructured interviews as part of the previous project had suggested that leaders accompanying participants in programmes in 2009 and 2010 were not aware of the original purpose of the PDPEF as a planning tool. Part of the work reported here emerged from that question and, in addition to analysing the youth participants' learning against the programme goal indicators and comparing the leaders' views of youth participant learning recorded on the PDPEF / GEF with the participants' perceptions of their learning recorded on the PaRQ, this research included semi-structured interviews with leaders which facilitated discussion about their perception of the purpose and use of the Group Evaluation Form.

4.3 Gaining access

CISV has an approval policy and procedure for research within programmes, which includes completion of a research proposal form and a personal declaration covering ethical items. As well as being a legal requirement for work with children in England, evidence of DBS (CRB) clearance was also required by CISV. This research

project received the formal approval of the CISV International Education and Training Officer and the then Chair of the International Evaluation and Research Committee. The Chair of the Summer Camp Committee and the Secretary General of CISV International were also supportive of the project.

In the previous chapter, section 3.2.1, the role of the researcher as an insider to CISV but without previous Summer Camp experience was discussed. Although an insider to the organisation, and having approval for the research from both CISV International and the national association (CISV Great Britain), it was necessary to negotiate access to the specific programme by correspondence with the programme director. Access to the programme as an observer was permitted for the first four days, which included the two leader training days (during which youth participants were staying with local host families) and two introductory days for participants as Phase One of data collection. Phase two data collection took place during three days at the end of the programme. This access, although limited, provided opportunity for the completion of leader questionnaires, both stages of the PaRQ, observation of a range of activities (with associated opportunities for informal conversations) and for leader interviews. In addition to the time on-site, the programme director provided copies of the Group Evaluation Form section of the PDPEF and of the Individual Evaluation Forms completed by each leader for the members of their delegation.

4.4 Participants, site and facilities

Four youth participants from each of nine national associations (Brazil, Canada, Ecuador, Georgia, Great Britain, Greece, Hong Kong, Italy, USA) were involved in this 23 day experiential learning programme, each delegation accompanied by an adult leader. The Summer Camp in this case study was fairly representative of CISV

programme participation in terms of structure, with four groups from Europe, two from North America, two from South America and one from East Asia. (At the date of the research, CISV had National Associations in 23 European countries, eight in North or Central America, six in South America and five in East Asia.) The fewer National Associations in South Asia, Africa, the Middle East and the antipodes were not represented. This was one of the 228 international programmes, including approximately 20 Summer Camps, organised by CISV International in 2011. It had 36 youth participants, nine leaders and five staff, a total of 50 of CISV's 8,939 international participants during that year (CISV 2012). Eighteen of the youth participants (50%) had previously taken part in other CISV programmes, some of these in more than one previous programme. Fourteen (39%) had participated in diverse Villages, five (14%) in Interchanges and five (14%) in Youth Meetings.

The case study programme was planned as a residential programme for participants aged 14 years, although in practice there were several participants who were 15 years old. The site was in a rural location in Derbyshire, normally used as an outdoor education centre. There were separate houses for boys' and girls' bedrooms and associated facilities, with a common room for leaders in the girls building and a carpeted room used for some small group activities in the boys building. The kitchen and dining room used during the programme were in a third building, adjacent to which was a larger room, used for most group activities. There was an extensive area of grass outside the kitchen / dining building and a specific area for camp-fires with simple benches round a wood burning brazier behind the activity room. The whole site was surrounded with woodland, although youth participants were not permitted to leave the buildings and grassed areas unless accompanied by a leader.

The CISV Summer Camp programme was 23 days in length. On arrival at the hosting Branch of the organisation, youth participants would be received by families, who were local members of CISV, for two nights hospitality. During the short time they stayed with a “host family” they could recover from their journey, see something of the local area, and experience a little of British family life. The following three weeks would be spent at the programme site, engaged in a mixture of educational and recreational activities interspersed with free time, except for outings to the Bradford Peace Centre, for swimming in the local town and for a shopping day in the nearest large city.

While the youth participants enjoyed a weekend with host families, their group leaders were taken from the meeting point to the Summer Camp site to work with the Host Staff and other leaders during a preparation weekend, getting to know those with whom they would spend the subsequent three weeks working to:

- organise the activities at the beginning of the programme;
- support the youth participants in designing activities;
- monitor the progress of programme development;
- evaluate the learning of the participants against programme goal indicators.

In addition to these roles, during the programme each leader would act as mentor and be *in loco parentis* with regard to the four participants in the delegation they were accompanying from their home country. In this role they would spend time with their delegation members each day during “delegation time”, potentially planning a national activity, developing discussion of the impact of recent activities, or dealing with pastoral needs of their delegation members.

The Host Staff consisted of five local CISV members appointed to prepare the outline of the Summer Camp, plan the introductory weekend for the leaders, support the programme development and deal with administrative and evaluation aspects. There

were also several local volunteers who were on-site for various periods of time to assist as kitchen staff. Members of kitchen staff were not involved in educational activities or other aspects of the programme designed for, and by, the youth participants.

4.5 The data collection process

The research, as outlined above, included the use of questionnaires for both leaders and youth participants, data derived from the GEF / PDPEF, interviews with the adult leaders and short periods of participant observation at the beginning and end of the programme. The following sections fill in the outline of the research process, although it will be appreciated that certain aspects described below had overlap in practice. For example, the administration of questionnaires took place during periods of observation but is described separately here as the data collected by questionnaire was treated in a different way to that collected through observation.

4.5.1 Phase One

Joining the leaders for some activities during their introductory weekend facilitated observation of sessions on activity planning and evaluation, including the use of the Group Evaluation Form (GEF) section of the Programme Director's Planning and Evaluation Form (PDPEF). After each session, notes were made to provide a record of the training or other activity for later reference. This was done away from the leaders so that the recording process did not affect their interaction. This recording strategy was used throughout the fieldwork.

4.5.2 Leader questionnaires

Towards the conclusion of the training session discussing evaluation, time had been allowed for the completion of the leader questionnaires. The research process was outlined for the leaders and they were given an information sheet with an agreement to sign. They were reminded that they could withdraw at any time if they felt uncomfortable with the research process or questions, but all agreed to take part. They were then asked to mark twelve statements related to the goal indicators (shown at section 3.4.2, above) on a scale from zero to four to indicate how many members of their delegation had already achieved each of the Summer Camp goal indicators (with 'X') and how many they expected to have achieved the indicator by the end of the Summer Camp (using '?'). They also listed previous CISV programmes in which they had been involved and the role they had taken in each of those programmes. Completed questionnaires were collected and kept in a safe place for later scoring and comparison with the end of programme scores to be recorded on the PDPEF / GEF.

4.5.3 Participant initial questionnaires

Time had been arranged for the youth participants to complete their initial questionnaires after dinner on their first evening. A brief background to the research was given in terms designed to appeal to the participants. This included both its approval by CISV International and the potential for producing results that might influence future programme development. The fact that there were no 'right' or 'wrong' answers and the importance of honest opinion was emphasised, and an assurance of anonymity in reporting was given. It was explained that although their parents had signed the legal forms, and thus given permission for the participants to be involved in any research in the programme, they were able to make their own decision

about taking part and, if willing to do so, should sign the agreement and retain their own copy of this.

The strategy of ‘double marking’ on the Likert scale for each statement was explained to the whole group, using the example item “I have many friends in the Summer Camp”. This was to ensure that each participant knew to use an ‘X’ for where s/he felt s/he could now place her / himself and a ‘?’ for where s/he realistically expected to be at the end of the programme. Participants had been asked to sit in delegation groups with their leader so that the adult could help with translation of any words they did not know, but it was emphasised that they should give their own, independently decided, response to each item. As each participant completed her / his questionnaire s/he was offered a token gift of a post card featuring a London scene. Questionnaires were collected and stored safely for later analysis of responses and comparison of results with those from the end of programme questionnaires.

4.5.4 Phase one observations

Observations undertaken during the first two days of the full Summer Camp were recorded in notes made during the youth participants’ “Free Time”, out of their sight. This was planned to minimise any effect of the researcher’s presence on participant behaviour. Observations at this time included introductory training activities, initial meetings of two planning groups and the first of the self-governing, decision making, Camp Meetings. These are reported in more detail in section 5.2.4.

4.5.5 Participant end of programme questionnaire

Time was allocated after a Camp Meeting on the penultimate full day of the Summer Camp for completion of the end of programme youth questionnaires. These were distributed to groups in a light-hearted way, using the union flag bags which would be token gifts for the leaders. The need for honest opinion and individuality of response was again noted, and it was explained that written sections could be completed in either English or the participant's home language, as, although the researcher worked in English, she had access to people who could translate the other camp languages.

The end of programme youth questionnaires contained the same statements as the initial questionnaires. As at the beginning of the camp, participants were asked to mark their current position on the Likert scales with an 'X', but on this second form they were instructed to place a '?' where, on *Reflection*, they felt they had been at the beginning of the programme. They were also asked to write responses in narrative spaces to the two questions:

- Please tell us a few things that you learned by coming to the Summer Camp?
- Now please tell us what you learned about yourself by coming to this Summer Camp?

A sample questionnaire is provided in appendix 6.

Although participants had been told that they could use their home language in the narrative spaces, if they so wished, only five did so. These contributions from Brazil and Ecuador were later translated by a native speaker of Brazilian Portuguese who was also competent in Spanish and English. After completion, the questionnaires, with the narrative comments, were collected and stored safely for later collation of responses, subsequent comparison with initial questionnaires and analysis of results, to include qualitative analysis of narrative comments.

4.5.6 Phase two observations

Observations made at the end of the programme were, again, discreetly recorded as field notes, out of sight of participants. These included observation of a Camp Meeting and three National Activities, each planned by respective delegation members with the support of their adult leader, to share aspects of their home culture or of a current national or local concern with other camp participants. Other activities observed had been planned by mixed nationality planning groups. During some of the Free Time allowed for informal mixing there were opportunities to talk informally with adult leaders and staff members and to undertake the informal interviews with leaders. Notes were made about relevant conversations at the earliest opportunity and the interviews were audio recorded with the permission of each leader as noted in their signed agreement.

4.5.7 Leaders' use of the Group Evaluation Form

One of the responsibilities of leaders in any CISV programme is to record achievement of the programme goal indicators for each member of their delegation on the Group Evaluation Form (GEF) so that a record of goal achievement can be submitted to CISV International after completion of the programme. This is then used for programme monitoring and is collated with the results of similar programmes for review by international programme committees. The preparation of leaders for this task had been observed at the beginning of the programme, but on arrival for the end of programme observation days it was noted that little of the wall chart matrix had been completed. During these last few days of the programme the leaders were encouraged by programme staff to complete the GEF and to make written comments on Individual Evaluation Forms (IEF). While the GEF must be submitted to CISV

International as part of the PDPEF, completion of the IEF is not essential. However, they are useful as reference documents for the Camp Director or Staff Member responsible for submission of the PDPEF as well as in helping leaders to reflect on the progress of individual participants. Leaders' contributions to completion of the GEF chart continued until the final day, after which the Camp Director took the wall chart in order to transfer the information to the on-line GEF for submission to CISV International. It should be noted that the on-line form does not require names of participants to be used but uses the names of participating countries plus M1, M2 (Male 1 and 2) for boys and F1, F2 (Female 1 and 2) for girls and this coding, with countries differentiated by letters, will be used in reporting results. A copy of the final completed PDPEF, including the GEF, was later supplied by CISV International and copies of the IEF were forwarded by the Camp Director for use in writing this thesis.

4.5.8 Interviews with leaders

The nine delegation leaders had all agreed to take part in informal interviews. The majority of these were individual conversations but two of the female leaders came together in one of the sessions and shared a conversation with the researcher. The interviews were conducted during periods of 'free time' at a picnic table some distance from the area where youth participants were talking so that background noise to the audio recording was minimised. These interviews were conducted in an informal manner; the researcher had a check-sheet of questions to cover but the order of discussing various topics differed in various conversations. However, the leaders were aware of the areas of interest on which they would be asked to relate experience and express opinion. With the permission of the leader(s) involved, each interview was

audio recorded. The audio recordings were, subsequently, transcribed and typed for analysis as described in the next section.

4.6 Data compilation and analysis

Following the conclusion of the Summer Camp, data from the youth questionnaires were tabulated for analysis by question and these results were displayed graphically. Changes in scores on the Likert scale items were plotted with arrows used to indicate the direction of change in self-reported scores. The positions of participants on each indicator at the beginning and end of the programme were compared using a two-tailed t-test. Comments written in the narrative spaces were typed for ease of analysis; key words on the typed data were highlighted to identify shared themes, which were later used to further interrogate the data and select shared ideas.

On receipt of the copy of the GEF, the number of participants in each delegation recorded as achieving each indicator was tabulated to compare with the leader forecasts of attainment; later, these were plotted as bar charts for visual comparison. The GEF was also used as the basis for a table in which leaders' scores of achievement / non-achievement of each indicator was compared with the youth participant self-score for the same item at the end of the programme in order that discrepancies of opinion could be identified. Comments on the IEF were also typed into a table for ease of comparison.

The informal interviews with leaders had been audio-recorded. These recordings were manually transcribed and then typed for ease of analysis. Key words were highlighted and used to identify shared ideas and themes for further interrogation of the texts. Field notes of observations and informal conversations were checked to ensure

that they were adequate for future interpretation and use in providing qualitative evidence when reporting the findings.

4.7 Chapter summary

This chapter has discussed the necessity to negotiate access to the case study Summer Camp programme and the work undertaken in the periods of time available. Access to the programme and its participants during the first four days provided opportunity for observation of leader preparation for use of the PDPEF / GEF and IEF, plus some initial activities, as well as time for completion of the initial questionnaires. In the second visit, at the end of the programme, activities planned by participants, both National Activities planned by delegation members and activities planned by mixed groups, were observed, the end of programme questionnaires were completed, the leader interviews were undertaken and notes were made following an informal conversation with the programme Director. Data collected during these visits was tabulated or transferred to paper for analysis as briefly reported above. Later, more detailed, analysis of the data will be reported as the results of this research in the next chapter.

Chapter 5

Results

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a narrative description of participation and observations in the Summer Camp before presenting results of the data collection from youth participant and adult leader questionnaires and an analysis of responses to open questions and interviews. This is written in chronological order whenever appropriate and planned to provide context for the results, as well as to give background to the discussion in the next chapter. It, therefore, begins with a description of work with leaders prior to arrival of the youth participants, then continues with descriptions of work with the youth themselves at the beginning of the programme (phase one) and end of programme (phase two). The adult completion of the group evaluation form and interviews with adults are subsequently introduced, but are addressed in more detail after the presentation of results from the youth questionnaires and narrative spaces.

5.2 Collected data

5.2.1 Phase one: Initial work with delegation leaders

Arrival at the Summer Camp for lunch on the first full day of the leaders' preparation weekend provided the opportunity for an explanation of the research project, the role of the researcher in relation to the Summer Camp itself and how the leaders and participants would be asked to contribute. The leader training weekend had been planned to include sessions on conflict and resolution (the educational content activity area highlighted in the current year), activity planning, facilitation, role(s) of the leader, evaluation, plans for the daily schedule, and conduct of leaders' meetings, as well as informal periods for leaders and staff to get to know each other and build

working relationships for conducting the three week programme. Modelling the participatory / experiential methods to be used with (and by) the youth participants, the majority of these sessions were based on an activity. For example, the session on activity planning was a running game with a ball, the aim being to pass the ball to one another and “catch” an identified staff member with the ball. However the initial instruction was simply to throw the ball into the group of leaders and let them play with it, the next step was to give them the instruction to run while playing with the ball and eventually they were advised about catching the staff member. The aim of this was to demonstrate that thorough and clear instructions are needed for any activity to be successful in meeting its objective(s).

The session of greatest relevance for the research process was that on evaluation, conducted by two younger members of the staff team. They discussed various situations in which debriefing and evaluation following educational activities might occur, including as a whole group, in small mixed groups, or in individual delegations. They also introduced potential formats for evaluation such as discussion, visual or movement strategies. Titles allocated to each of these evaluation formats were displayed on walls in various parts of the room then written descriptions of specific scenarios were distributed and individual leaders asked to place them with the type of evaluation they felt most appropriate. After this, the scenarios and their placement were discussed by members of the whole leadership group. It was noted that there may be situations where evaluation is needed at more than one level, for example the outcome or meaning of an activity might be discussed first in small groups then the whole camp could come together for a large group discussion.

The session on activity evaluation, outlined above, was followed by the introduction of the PDPEF Group Evaluation Form (GEF) and discussion of the way in

which this form could be used in the current programme. The form had been drawn out as a large wall-chart showing the matrix of participant names against programme goal indicators. An example of the Group Evaluation Form is given in appendix 1. Leaders were advised that any one of them could mark off the achievement of an indicator by any youth participant if they witnessed relevant behaviour. If they were not the participant's delegation leader, they should add their name to this mark so that the leader could check and agree the achievement with them for recording on the related Individual Evaluation Forms. It was noted that some indicators might be easier to mark than others; for example, indicator 2a, *Receive training on how to plan and run an activity, before and during the first days of camp*, could be checked off when such training had been provided, whereas indicator 3d, *Increase self confidence*, might need careful observation and interpretation of behaviour. Following the initial presentation of the GEF, six scenarios describing specific behaviour were distributed. Leaders discussed these in small groups, then read them to the whole group for discussion of whether or not the behaviour showed evidence of achievement of any of the indicators, and which indicator the behaviour might satisfy. The emphasis in this session was on using the GEF to record participant attainment. Use of the accumulated evidence to inform programme planning was only mentioned in passing and was not discussed. It was noted that all nine leaders had either discussed the use of a GEF in training sessions in their home country or used the equivalent form in one or more previous leadership role(s); four of the nine leaders had done both.

At the end of the leaders' training session outlined above, when the PDPEF had been introduced, the researcher had time to explain the tasks which leaders and youth participants would be asked to do in order to contribute to the research process. Leaders were provided with a written explanation of questionnaire completion and how their delegation members might be involved. They were advised that, although they had

signed on their CISV legal forms that they agreed to any research that might be conducted in the programme, they could consider what had been explained and if they were happy to participate they should sign the agreement (see appendix 7). However, they were reminded that they could still withdraw if they felt uncomfortable at any stage. All nine leaders agreed to contribute at each phase of data collection and to support their delegation members with interpretation of questionnaire text if this was needed. The completion of the short Leader Questionnaire was then explained to the leaders as they needed to place two marks on each line, an 'X' to indicate how many members of their delegation they felt had already achieved each indicator and a '?' to indicate how many they expected to achieve the indicator by the end of the programme. Completed questionnaires were collected and kept in a safe place for scoring and comparison with the end of programme participant achievement scores which were to be recorded on the PDPEF / GEF.

5.2.2 Beginning of programme data collection from youth participants

Youth participants were brought to the Summer Camp residential site by their host families during the early evening and greeted by their leaders before beginning to get to know each other informally. When they had all arrived and spent some time in delegations, talking with their leaders and becoming familiar with the programme site, the whole group of 36 participants, nine delegation leaders and five members of host staff came together for introductions. The Camp Director explained key basic rules for appropriate behaviour in camp with regard to personal relationships, (non) use of alcohol, smoking, etc., as outlined for all CISV programmes in the CISV InfoFile document R-07, *Behaviour and Cultural Sensitivity*, (available through CISV Resources at <http://www.cisv.org/search/?q=R+07&x=7&y=13>). The initial daily schedule

(Figure 5.1, below) was then explained by another member of staff. Each day would have set times for meals, planning group meetings, four planned activities, delegation time (when participants meet with their own leader and national colleagues to work on national presentations, continue debriefing/ evaluation of activities, discuss how they feel about what has been happening, etc.), household tasks (cleaning, washing up) and free time for informal mixing.

8.30	Wake up
8.55	Flag
9.00	Breakfast
9.45	Cleaning groups
10.30	Activity one
11.15	Snack
11.30	Activity two
12.45	Free time
13.00	Lunch then siesta
15.00	Planning time
16.30	Break
16.45	Activity 3
17.30	Free time / Leaders' Meeting
18.30	Dinner
19.30	Delegation time
20.30	Activity 4
22.00	Flag time / lullabies
23.30	Lights out

Figure 5.1: Typical daily schedule

One other routine was that during one of the 'free time' periods each day the leaders would hold a meeting to discuss progress or attempt to resolve any identified difficulties.

After these introductions to expected routines, the researcher was introduced to the participants by the Camp Director with that role description. The questionnaires were distributed, explained to participants, completed and collected as described earlier in section 4.5.3.

The thirty six youth participants, nine delegation leaders and five members of host staff had been allocated to five “planning groups” responsible for organising many of the activities within the programme. Four of these groups were managed by two leaders working together, the fifth by a leader who had previously been a leader in another summer camp working with one of the younger staff members. Each delegation would also organise a session on a topic related to the culture of their home country, (three of these were later observed in phase two) and some events, such as a visit to the Bradford Peace Centre, had been pre-arranged by the Host Staff. In addition to groups of participants conducting the majority of the activity sessions, certain aspects of a Summer Camp can be self-governing through decisions made in an open meeting of all participants, chaired by an elected member who would normally be one of the youth participants.

The first two days of the Summer Camp were slightly atypical in that the activities had been planned by the leaders so that the mixed planning groups had time to meet and plan activities thoroughly before it was their first turn to organise a programme activity. These introductory activities, conducted during the first two days, often had a training purpose. For example, the youth participant group did the running activity which staff had organised earlier for the leaders in order to appreciate the need for full instructions when they were to explain an activity. This was used as an introduction to the Camp Director’s explanation of the Activity Planning Template, designed to help the participants to ensure they had covered necessary aspects of

activity planning including: duration, materials, goal, energiser to be used, instructions, group evaluation, planning group evaluation. A sample Activity Planning Template is given in appendix 9. Another member of Host Staff then outlined the anticipated stages of development in the programme so that the participants were aware that different types of activity might be more appropriate in the differing programme phases illustrated in the model below.

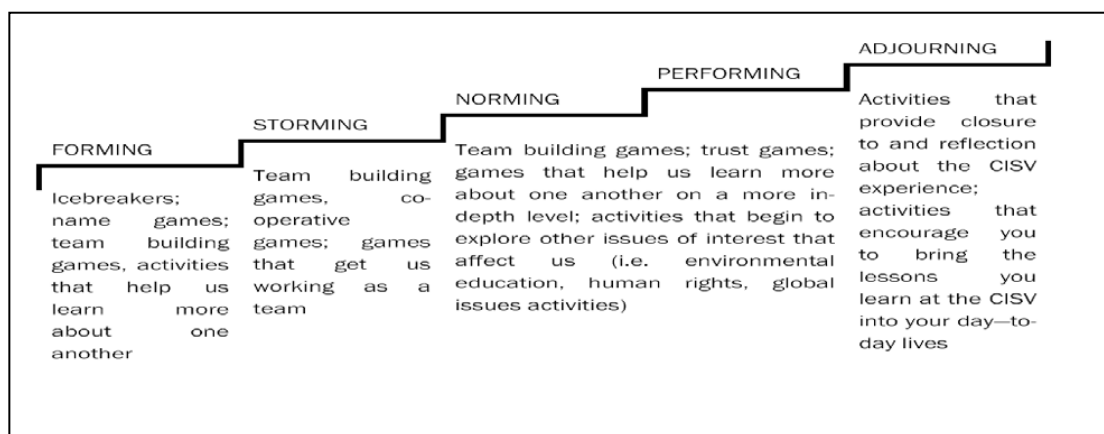


Figure 5.2: CISV's Group Development Model (CISV Village Guide, p. 155)

In this model the initial activities are planned to help participants to get to know each other in order to move smoothly to the second stage where they can feel comfortable working together. As they work together they should learn more about each other, so that they are prepared to take part in trust games, and eventually become involved in simulation activities. The final phase should be a transition to returning home and using programme learning in other contexts. It is worth reiterating that learning in programmes such as those provided by CISV may have short term outputs (potentially, in acquiring international knowledge) but the longer term benefit, as an evolution of intercultural attitude, may not be seen within the timescale of the programme itself. This might be seen as a reflection of short term “output” and longer term “outcome”, the distinction made by Storrs (2010) and discussed in chapter 1, section 1.4.1.

In one of the early activities, planned to help participants get to know more about each other, the youth participants were assigned to mixed nationality groups of four plus an adult leader from a different country. They spent some time discussing hobbies, recreational activities, study interests and their hopes for the future. Then they were given a short time to 'dress' the leader in clothes or objects to signify something of what they had discussed. Each group then explained the "costume" to the other camp members. Examples included specific items of clothing that had special memories or objects which indicated ambitions, such as an item of clothing from a special occasion or a camera supplied by one person who wanted to be a professional photographer.

5.2.3 Working in planning groups

The role of a leader in planning groups was apparent in observation of one group where an experienced leader was involved. In the first planning meeting with the group he elicited ideas for the first activity they would organise for all participants. He encouraged group members to take account of the time of day for which they were planning and to consider both indoor and outdoor options (given the variable weather but recognising the limit to indoor space, which would be difficult for running games). One participant suggested an activity that involved a significant element of trust of fellow participants so the experienced leader asked group members if they felt it might be better for use later in the programme, when everyone really knew and trusted each other well. In this first meeting a girl from Ecuador had offered to take notes of the meeting and record group decisions. It was noticed that a boy from USA was confident in offering and explaining ideas within the group but was unwilling to agree to explain the activity he had suggested to the whole camp. This task was taken by a British boy, once the details of instructions had been clarified with the help of constructive

contributions from an Italian boy. The latter appeared to have more limited competence in expressive use of oral English than some of the other participants, but other group members listened attentively to what he had to say and appeared to value his contributions to the discussion. At the conclusion of this meeting, with a low, but valuable, level of guidance from the adult leader, group members had clarified how they would organise and evaluate the activity and had each agreed to take a role in an aspect of conducting the planned activity.

Observation of a second planning group, guided by two leaders, one with previous experience but the other for whom this was her first CISV programme, again resulted in roles for all group members in coordinating the subsequent activity. This group planned a session to include a carousel of short, non-verbal, group activities after which they would use specific questions for de-briefing and reflection in the same small groups, to include: How did you communicate? Was it easy? What would have made it easier? Again, one of the youth members of the planning group took the responsibility of recording the outcomes of discussion so that all members were clear about their responsibilities in organising the planned session.

One of the key features of a Summer Camp was the shared responsibility for decision making, so on the second day a full session was given to the first “Camp Meeting”. This was chaired by the youngest member of the Host Staff but concluded with nominations and election of one of the youth participants to chair the next such meeting. The major topic of discussion in this meeting was the time of “lights out”. It had been made clear on the first evening that meal times and the number of activity sessions each day could not be changed so these factors had to be taken into account, but discussion focussed on ability to take part in activities. In many Summer Camps the participants chose to change the bed time to a significantly later hour but, after lengthy

discussion, a paper vote at this camp decided that there should not be any change to the “lights out” time originally planned, although time would be allowed between the end of Activity 4 and the flag-lowering, followed by lullabies, for showers to be taken.

5.2.4 End of programme data collection from youth participants: questionnaires

Three days before the end of the programme the researcher received a warm welcome from leaders and participants when, just after her arrival at the site, they returned from a shopping excursion to the nearest large city. At dinner her return was formally announced by the Camp Director. After dinner, a Camp Meeting (chaired by one of the boys from country B) set up a planning group to organise a party in two days time and asked for another camp fire to be arranged. Following the Camp Meeting, time had been allocated for completion of the end of programme youth questionnaires. The distribution, completion and collection of these end of programme questionnaires is described in chapter four, section 4.5.5.

5.2.5 End of programme observations: national and group activities

Activities described in this section are recounted to demonstrate some of the non-formal learning opportunities presented to youth participants in their Summer Camp. During the programme there were national activities prepared by each of the nine delegations, three of which are described below. Activities for other periods were organised in rotation by the planning groups and two examples of these educational activities are described. Some other activities may have been more recreational, such as the running game organised by a planning group for the afternoon of the penultimate day of the programme.

Leaders had been asked to select activity sessions for their national activity earlier in the programme, but three of the nine were planned to take place during the last three days. Participants from USA introduced their national activity session by asking participants each to draw a picture of what they understood by “beauty”. They then showed a video of information about use of *Photoshop* and the advertising of fast food and cosmetics. Fellow participants were asked to discuss their impressions of the advertising, resulting in an expression of need for critical appraisal of such advertising. The function of advertising in a commercial world was discussed and statistics related to the obesity epidemic in USA were presented, both suggesting a need for appropriate education.

The following morning participants woke to find corridors and communal spaces strewn with litter and bags of rubbish, not realising that this was part of the Italian National Activity until the theme of this was explained in an announcement at breakfast. The Italian delegation had planned this as an introduction to their presentation and activity about the lack of refuse collection in Naples over recent months, including strikes by refuse collectors and the closure of a local rubbish dump. Other participants were then allocated to mixed groups to play a game in which they acquired words (e.g. corruption, legality) that they could use in slogans. Having devised their slogans, they were invited to make a mock demonstration against the corrupt organisations controlling the rubbish dumps. The activity concluded with a video showing footage of streets in Naples which had high levels of litter and un-collected bags of refuse. As the activity had started straight after breakfast, it was then time for participants to put into practice some of the ideas they had discussed and do the domestic work normally done immediately after breakfast.

The final activity of this penultimate day of the Summer Camp programme was the Georgian National Activity session. Participants were allocated to one of four groups. Two of the groups had the chance to learn some basic steps involved in Georgian national dances and to try some of the phonetically representative Georgian writing. It was noted in this session that the youth participant leading the writing group was particularly adept at including adults as learners on the same level as her peers in the Summer Camp. The other two groups were taken to another room and later gave improvised dramatic representations of the stories they had been told about the origin of Tblisi and about the 2003 revolution in Georgia. After these, more active, aspects the session concluded with a video showing some more professional Georgian dancing and some of the scenery of the country, complemented by a snack of nut toffee prepared by the Georgian leader earlier in the day.

In other sessions observed during the last few days of the Summer Camp, some of the activities planned by groups of participants had objectives clearly related to the educational theme emphasised that year, Conflict and Resolution. In one of these the participants were allocated to five groups, each of which then split into two smaller sub-groups. These paired small groups went round a carousel of five stations. At each station of the carousel one of the small groups would be given a task that was harder than that given to their partner group or one of the pair of small groups would be severely criticised for their performance. In some instances the group in each pair declared 'winner' was clearly unfair, on other occasions the 'winner' was declared to be the sub-group attempting the harder task. The objective of this activity had been to provoke a level of conflict in order to be able to discuss how to resolve it, but this did not work quite as planned. However, the debriefing did include discussion of fairness with regard to the tasks given to sub-groups and the way in which the "judge" at each station may have used informed discretion in allocating the "winner" position to the

sub-group given the harder task. The discussion also considered the differing perspectives of the judge and those judged in each task, and participants commented that a form of injustice in “real life” occurs when one accepts unfairness if one is on the side that benefits and only objects if the imbalance has adverse effects.

In a second activity related to the annual theme, participants were each allocated to one of four groups by members of the planning group. The four groups then had twenty minutes to develop and dramatise a scenario demonstrating conflict and resolution of that conflict. These dramatisations were presented to a jury composed of members of the planning group who made comment and criticised the presentations. The subsequent discussion included personal feelings at taking on the role of a disputant in a dramatisation of a conflict (which had been uncomfortable for some of those in the activity), and the actors’ reactions to the hyper-critical jury comments. These had, again, been designed to provoke comment and provide stimulus for further development of means of resolving any ensuing conflict.

These three national activities and two activities focused on conflict and resolution have been described from observation in the Summer Camp so as to provide illustration of activities organised by delegations and by mixed planning groups. The former were planned by youth participants in each delegation in cooperation with their leader and youth participants from the relevant nation were involved in facilitating various parts of the national activity. The activities arranged by the mixed planning groups were developed from ideas generated by the youth participants, taking account of the planning factors of which they were advised at the beginning of the programme and as detailed on the planning sheets designed to help them.

Planning and conducting activities such as those outlined above provided opportunities to develop skills identified among the indicators for Summer Camp goals,

such as (2c) *Contribute during group discussion*, or (3a) *Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders*. Discussion, both in planning groups and in debriefing in the latter part of an educational activity, could contribute to or demonstrate the achievement of other indicators such as (3b) *Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts*, or (3d) *Increase self confidence*. More directly, indicators for Goal 1, (1a) *Share own culture with the camp*, and (1b) *Learn about at least two other cultures through different activities*, might be achieved by, respectively, working on their own national activities and sharing in those of other delegations. The results of recording such achievement will be illustrated and discussed in a subsequent section of this chapter.

5.2.6 Conversations with adults

The nine delegation leaders came to the Summer Camp with varying amounts of previous CISV experience. The two male leaders had previous experience as leader or staff member in three or four programmes, three of the seven female leaders had one previous leadership role as a Village or Summer Camp delegation leader and one had been a member of kitchen staff in a Village some years previously, while for the remaining three female leaders this was their first such leadership role. This range of experience was reflected in the interviews, where those with recent leadership experience were able to discuss their use of CISV publications and resources, including the GEF / PDPEF, in previous programmes as well as in the case study summer camp. Interviews were arranged with leaders during the last three days of the programme and permission to record the conversation was checked with each leader again, although they had signed an agreement to this effect at the beginning of the programme. Most interviews took place out of doors, at a picnic table some distance away from the

activity and dining rooms so as to minimise the noise interference from ‘free time’ activities among the youth participants. Seven of the leaders were interviewed individually while the other two had a shared conversation with the researcher. These interviews were quite informal with each leader being invited to comment on programme development, use of programme planning resources, use of the GEF / PDPEF in relation to both any previous leadership role and to their current role. They were also invited to comment on the progress of their own delegation members. The schedule of topics for discussion, given in section 3.4.2, above, was used by the researcher to note comments, although individual points were often addressed in a different order, depending on how they arose during the conversation with the leader. Interviews were recorded and after later transcription key words relating to the topics discussed were highlighted and the ideas generated were then summarised for thematic analysis.

Informal conversation with the Camp Director, who had previous experience as a member of Village Host Staff and Director of an earlier Summer Camp, was valuable in supporting suggestions or comments made by other adults. She noted that the Camp participants were a very responsible and considerate group of young people, as noted in their decision about the time of “lights out” (section 5.1.4, above). However, she felt that they had not developed work on the theme of conflict and resolution as thoroughly as expected. She also commented that the debriefing or evaluation at the end of educational activities had generally been rather superficial with limited discussion and often just a quick evaluation of enjoyment using the ‘fist of five’ (in which each participant holds up one hand with the number of fingers extended in proportion to how much s/he enjoyed the activity). She explained that other methods of evaluation had been discussed but only rarely applied. She was happy that the Summer Camp had been

enjoyed by participants, although she felt that their work could have involved a deeper exploration of some of the ideas generated through educational activities.

Subsequent sections of this chapter will present data relating to participants' educational progress as they reported in the self-evaluation tool 'PaRQ', both on the predictive and reflective questionnaire items and in the narrative spaces. It will then report the adult leaders' perceptions of the youth participants' progress and their comments on the use of the Group Evaluation Form (GEF) section of the Programme Director's Planning and Evaluation Form (PDPEF), using information from questionnaires and from interviews with the adult leaders, before moving on to consider how the youth and adult perceptions of learning were aligned. In a later chapter the potential for use of these evaluation strategies in other CISV programmes or other organisations will be considered.

5.2.7 Summary of the collected data

The results reported here are derived from work in a CISV Summer Camp for youth participants aged 14 and 15 years. Youth participants in the Summer Camp were asked to complete a predictive questionnaire at the start of the programme and a reflective questionnaire at the end of the three weeks. Questionnaires were composed of statements derived from the indicators of achievement of programme goals given on the PDPEF shown in Appendix 1.

On the predictive form youth participants were asked to use a cross to indicate their current position on a seven point Likert scale (disagree strongly, disagree, disagree a little, don't know, agree a little, agree, agree a lot) for each of the statements derived from the goal indicators. They were also asked to place a question mark at the point for

each statement that they anticipated reaching by the end of the programme. On the reflective version of the form, completed on the penultimate day of the programme, they were again asked to use a cross to indicate where they felt they were at that date but this time they used a question mark to show where they now felt they had been at the beginning of the programme. This reflective form also had space to answer the two questions: “Please tell us a few things that you learned by coming to this Summer Camp”, and “Now please tell us what you learned about yourself by coming to this Summer Camp”. Comments in response to these two questions are referred to in subsequent discussion as “Narrative spaces” as the participants were free to answer in whatever written way they chose, with respect to written form (list, continuous narrative, narrative with bullet points, etc;) They were also told that while the researcher used only English they could choose to write in their own language if they wished as the researcher had access to translators.

The leaders completed a questionnaire at the beginning of the programme with similar statements relating to indicator achievement, (see appendix 8). This questionnaire asked them how many members of their delegation they felt had already achieved the indicator (0,1, 2, 3 or 4, marked with a cross) and how many they anticipated achieving the indicator by the end of the programme (using a question mark). Data to compare with these forecasts at the end of the programme was derived from the PDPEF, completed for submission to CISV International Office by the programme director. This latter form was completed on the basis of observations recorded by leaders on a Group Evaluation Form chart (GEF), displayed in the Leaders’ Room, supplemented by notes on the Individual Evaluation Forms (IEF) which leaders completed for each participant. Copies of these official CISV forms were supplied for use as raw data in this research project by CISV International and by the programme Director, respectively.

Leaders, several of whom had previous leadership experience in CISV, also took part in short, informal interviews focused on the development of educational activities within the programme and on the use of the PDPEF, more specifically on the use of the GEF section. At other times, notes were made out of sight of the participants in an attempt to avoid observer effects on participant behaviour. These were based on observations, informal conversations and participation in activities organised by staff and leaders at the beginning of the programme and by groups of youth participants themselves later in the programme.

5.3 Views of the youth participants

Use of the youth participant *Predictive and Reflective Questionnaire* was described in an earlier section. Outcomes were tabulated to facilitate analysis and the percentages of participants marking each point are compared and discussed below.

5.3.1 Youth participant evaluation of their achievements – PaRQ

The charts developed from analysis of the data collected illustrate that between the beginning and end of the programme there was general movement towards stronger agreement with the statement related to each indicator. That is, the youth participants showed stronger agreement with the statements at the end of the programme than they had at the beginning. The figures for the two indicators for goal 1 (Develop Intercultural Awareness), below, show that there was clear movement from a mixture of uncertainty to agreement with the related statement. For example, Figure 5.4 shows that half of the participants disagreed or were uncertain of their knowledge about two other nationalities (two being specified on the PDPEF goal indicator) at the beginning of the

Summer Camp, but by the end of the programme eight participants (22%) agreed a little, 10 participants (28%) agreed, and 18 participants (50%) agreed strongly with the questionnaire statement, that is, all the participants agreed with the statement to some extent, half of them showing strong agreement.

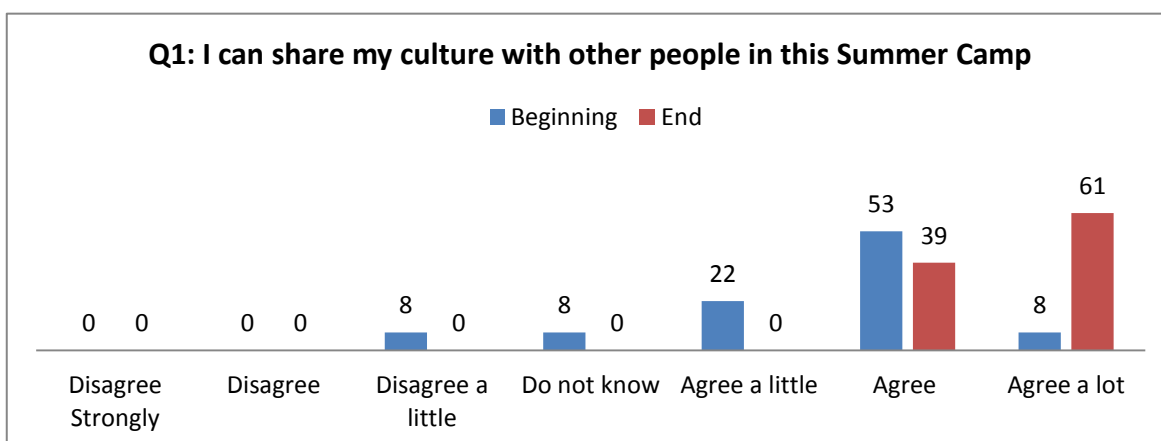


Figure 5.3 Comparison of beginning and end scores on indicator 1a / Q1: percentage of participants at each point of Likert scale

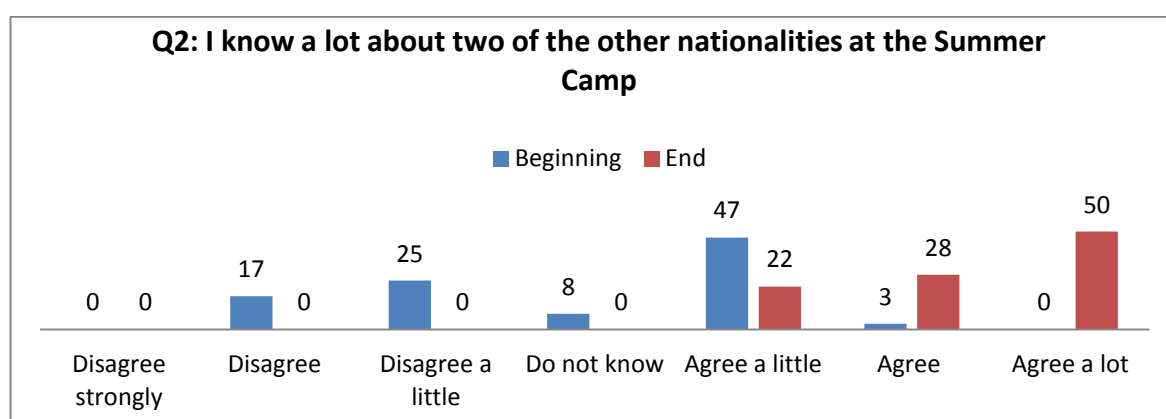


Figure 5.4 Comparison of beginning and end scores on indicator 1b / Q2: percentage of participants at each point of Likert scale

The second goal for Summer Camp, Develop Leadership Skills, had four indicators, which focused on skills needed for planning and running activities and on the related ability to contribute to group discussions, as needed for activity planning. At the beginning of the programme, members of the Host Staff organised an activity to demonstrate key points in activity planning and at the end of the programme only one

participant (3%) marked himself on the disagree end of the Likert scale for the related statement, as shown in Figure 5.5.

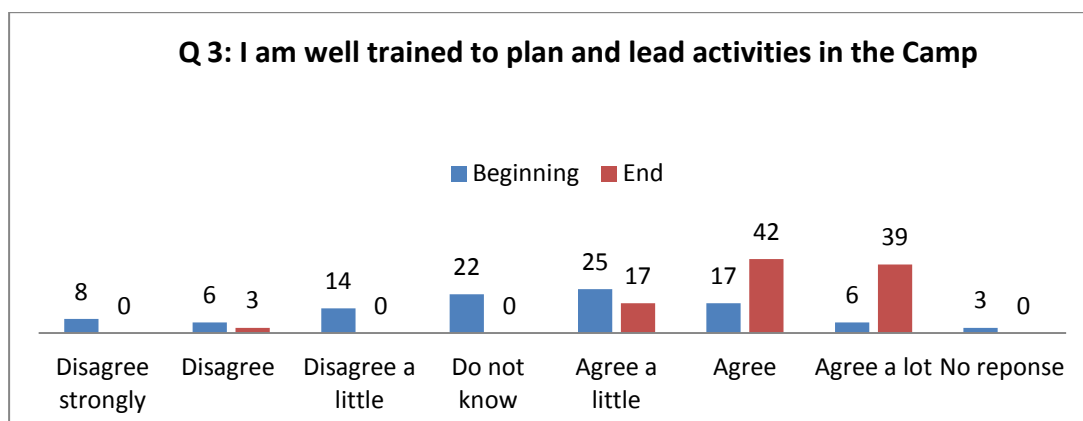


Figure 5.5 Comparison of beginning and end scores on indicator 2a / Q3: percentage of participants at each point of Likert scale

For some other statements the picture was somewhat more complex. For example, the graph showing participants' views of their skill in using an experiential learning cycle for activity planning (Figure 5.6, below) suggests that more participants disagreed with the statement at the end of the programme than at the beginning. However, it also shows that by the end of the programme only seven participants (20%) were on the 'disagree' side of 'Don't know' compared with the initial thirteen (36%) and those on the 'agree' side had increased from 14 (39%) to 26 (72%).

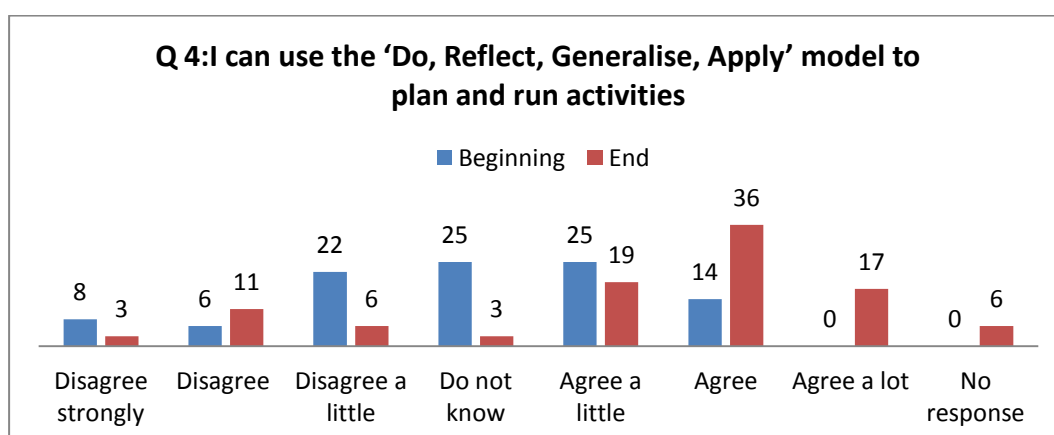


Figure 5.6 Comparison of beginning and end scores on indicator 2b / Q4: percentage of participants at each point of Likert scale

Indicators 2c and 2d, (questionnaire statements 5 and 6), show similar movement towards agreement with their related questionnaire statement, although perhaps not quite as decisive as for indicators 1a and 1b.

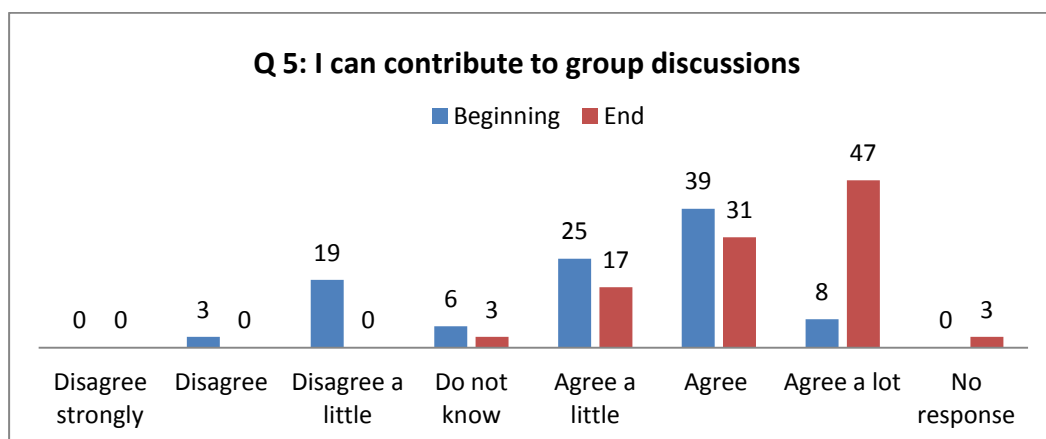


Figure 5.7 Comparison of beginning and end scores on indicator 2c / Q5: percentage of participants at each point of Likert scale

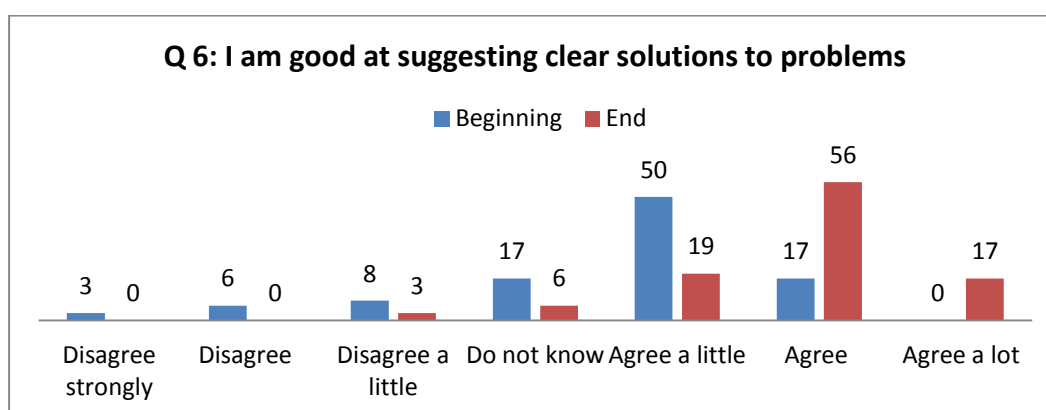


Figure 5.8 Comparison of beginning and end scores on indicator 2d / Q6: percentage of participants at each point of Likert scale.

Goal three, Develop self-awareness, also had four indicators. Indicators 3b and 3c (Q8 and 9) might be thought to share elements of self-expression. The results appear to show rather different profiles of results. However, at the end of the programme, over 60% of participants agreed or agreed strongly that they could use their own ideas when taking part in discussions, and a similar percentage either agree or agree strongly that they could make their ideas clear for other participants to understand, as shown below.

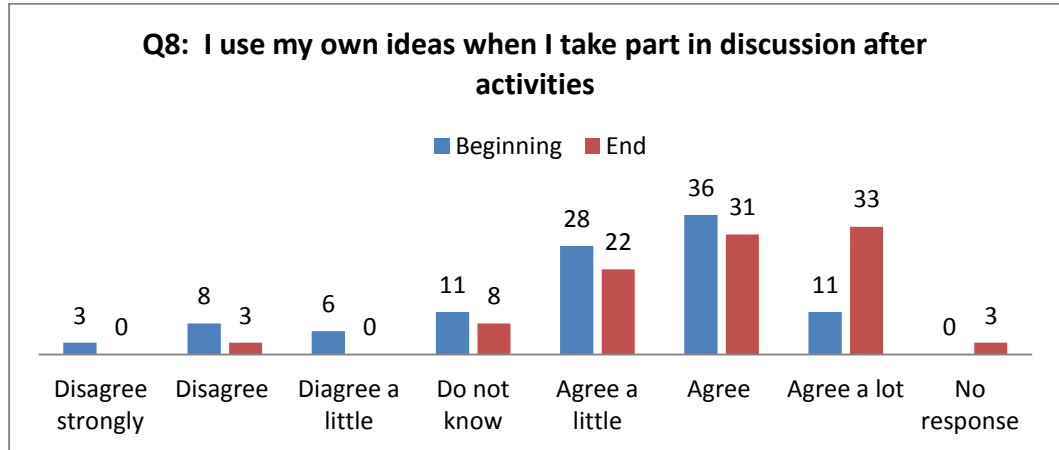


Figure 5.9: Comparison of beginning and end scores on indicator 3b / Q8: percentage of participants at each point of Likert scale

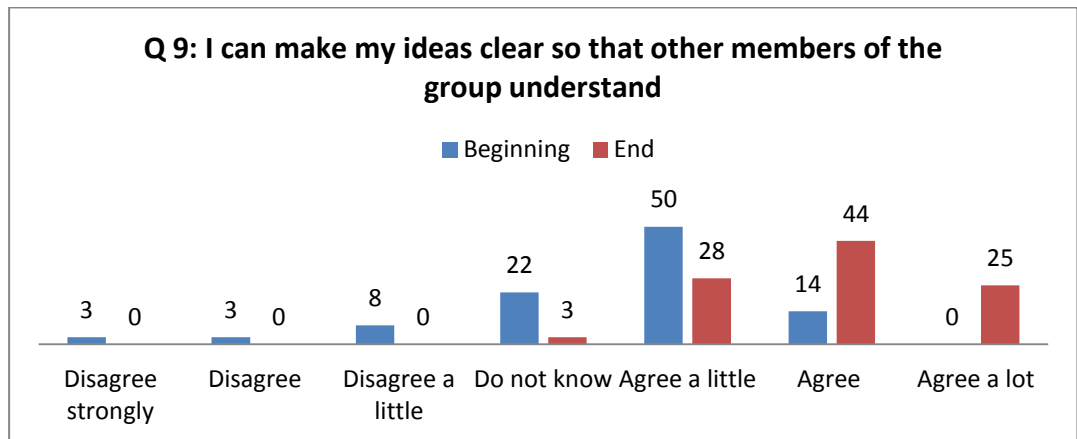


Figure 5.10: Comparison of beginning and end scores on indicator 3c / Q9: percentage of participants at each point of Likert scale

Even where participants had generally agreed with a statement at the beginning of the programme they appeared to be more positive at the end, as illustrated in relation to question ten, the statement about personal confidence. Figure 5.10 shows that 24 participants (66%) were on the “agree” side of “Do not know” at the beginning of the programme but this had increased to 34 participants (94%) by the end of the programme and those who “agreed a lot” with the statement had quadrupled from four (11%) to 16 (44%) by the end of the programme.

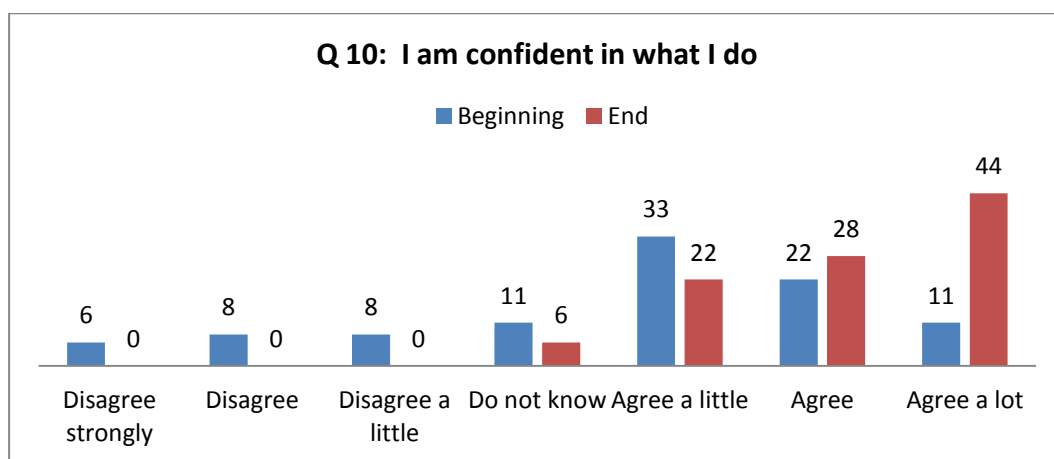


Figure 5.11: Youth perceptions of growth in confidence: percentage of participants at each point of Likert scale

This reported growth in confidence was recorded in an implied fashion in the answers to Q7, relating to Indicator 3a, “Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders,” (Figure 5.12, below). More than half the number of participants agreed a lot with this statement and over 80% of them either agreed or agreed a lot, with only one participant disagreeing (a boy from country F noted by his leader to be lacking in confidence in his English skills) and 6% (i.e. two participants) being uncertain about this statement. One of those who was uncertain was the somewhat immature boy from Country B, who had difficulty in engaging with other summer camp participants and the other was a girl from country D who’s leader also suggested on her IEF that she may have found communication difficult because of her limited knowledge of English.



Figure 5.12: Youth perceptions of their ability to lead the daily programme, Indicator 3a / Q7: percentage of participants at each point of Likert scale

A similar shift was seen in the scores for indicator 4a, (Question 11) “I can cooperate with other members of the group to plan and lead activities”, with only one participant recording “Do not know” at the end of the programme and all others agreeing with the statement. Even at the beginning of the programme most participants had agreed at some level with this statement but at the end of the programme almost half of them (17, 47%) stated that they “agree a lot”, as shown in Figure 5.13, below.



Figure 5.13 Comparison of beginning and end scores on indicator 4a / Q11: percentage of participants at each point of Likert scale

This indicator was paired with 4b, “Help others feel included in the group,” in relating to Goal 4, “Develop cooperative skills”. It is noted that the statement used on the questionnaire for this point is slightly different from that of the original indicator in order to make it more concrete for the youth participants to answer. However, once again there appears to be greater agreement with this statement at the end of the programme than there had been at the beginning.

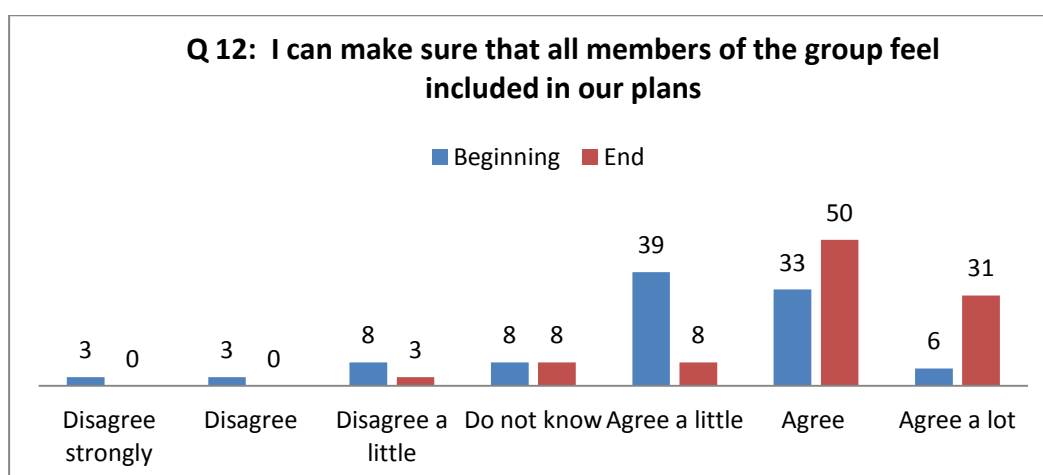


Figure 5.14 Comparison of beginning and end scores on indicator 4b / Q12: percentage of participants at each point of Likert scale

In summarising these results for youth self perception of learning during the Summer Camp it is noted that in all cases the learning across the participants as a group, according to their self-scoring on the PaRQ, appeared to be positive. As a check for the validity of this conclusion, initial and final positions of participants on the Likert scales were compared using a t-test.

Question	t-test result	Probability	Significance
1	6.882	<.0001	****
2	12.1142	<.0001	****
3	7.1818	<.0001	****
4	3.2469	.0026	***
5	6.1183	<.0001	****
6	7.0174	<.0001	****
7	6.4518	<.0001	****
8	3.6690	<.0008	****
9	8.2489	<.0001	****
10	6.0648	<.0001	****
11	5.5649	<.0001	****
12	4.3489	<.0001	****

Table 5.1: t-test results for beginning and end of programme Likert Scale positions

The t-test scores all show a high level of significance, although the score for question 4, “I can use the ‘Do, reflect, generalise, apply’ model to plan and run activities,” is not quite as strong as other scores, suggesting more diverse views among the participants.

5.3.2 Alignment of youth perceptions of development with their expectations: PaRQ reflective scores

The data presented above grouped results in order to consider the effectiveness of programme participation for all of the camp members together. The beginning and end of programme PaRQ results for individual participants were also compared in order to see if the youth participant perceptions at the end of the programme were in-line with their expectations as expressed in their projection of position made at the beginning of the camp.

It was explained earlier that at the beginning of the programme participants used a question mark on each questionnaire statement to indicate where they thought they would be at the end of the programme, and at the end they used a question mark to indicate where they then thought they actually had been at the beginning. Examination of the 432 possible responses for end of programme position revealed that 43% of scores at the end of the Summer Camp were at the point that the participant had predicted but almost the same percentage, 41%, were lower than the participant predicted, while 14% were higher, as shown in Figure 5.15, on the next page. It was also noted that 6.5% of self-scores at the end of the programme were below where the participant had placed him/herself at the beginning. Interestingly, 53% of scores for where participants **felt** they had been at the beginning were lower than the point at

which they had initially placed themselves. However, in their narrative spaces participants generally reported positive learning.

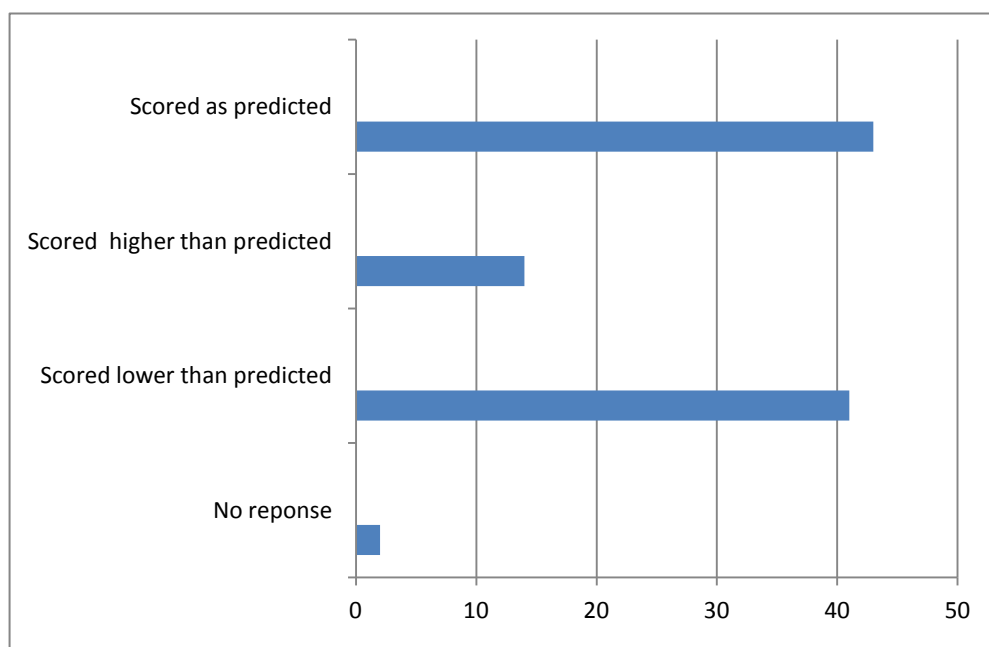


Figure 5.15 Comparison of actual and predicted scores on PaRQ at the end of the Summer Camp (percentage of participants)

Collated results such as those shown above conceal individual differences, but comparison of where each participant had placed her/himself at the end of the programme with where s/he had placed her/himself at the beginning revealed individual differences. Charts for all participants are given in appendix 10, but an example of the responses from one individual is shown below. This suggests that at the beginning of the programme (noted in red) this participant agreed a little or agreed with nine of the indicator statements, was unsure of her position on two and disagreed with only one statement, but at the end of the programme she either agreed or agreed strongly with all statements. However, when she reflected from the end of the programme to where she believed she had been at the beginning, she felt that she should have disagreed with all the statements at that time.

	Disagree strongly	Disagree a little	Disagree a little	Don't know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[? x]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Summer Camp	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[x]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Summer Camp	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[?]	[x]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan and run activities	[x]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[? x]	[]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[x]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[?]	[]	[x]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan and lead activities	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]

Figure 5.16 PaRQ Scores Example 1

In Example 2 (Figure 5.17, below) just six of the indicators are shown. As in the example above, the participant here (Country E, F1), on reflection, marked these indicators lower than she had done initially, while showing progress in most of them. It is noted that her position on the confidence indicator (fifth of those shown in this example) did not actually change, although she *felt* that she had changed.

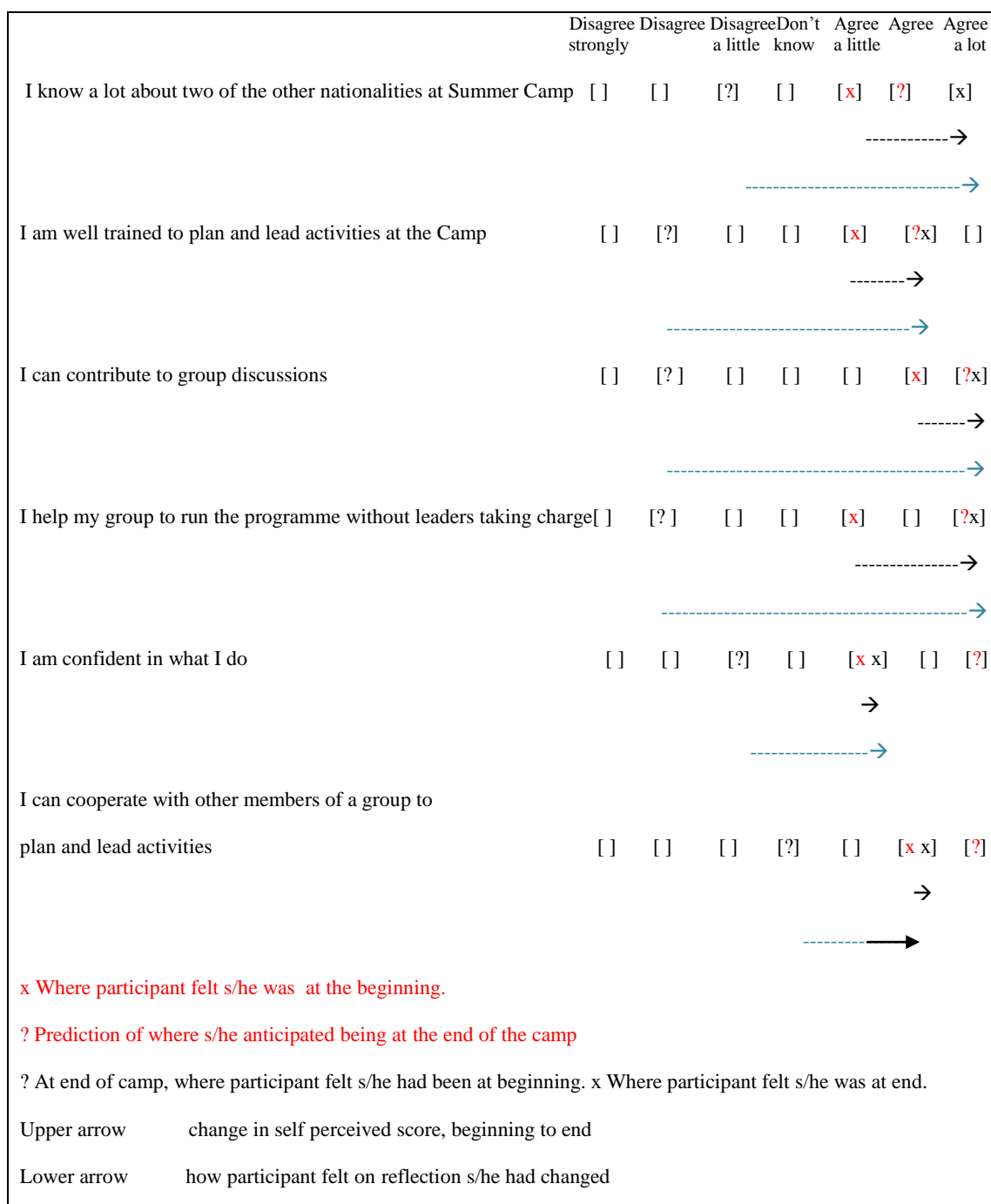


Figure 5.17 Some changes on a PaRQ: Example 2, Country E, F1

However, not all patterns of response were so consistent. Example 3 (Figure 5.17) uses the same indicators as the case immediately above, but here we see a boy (Country A, M2) who, at the beginning of the programme, marked “agree a lot” on the statements that he was trained to run activities and that he could contribute to discussions. However, he placed his final position one point lower on the scale for each of these indicators and felt that he had started from an even lower position. Even with

the two items shown here on which he did not change position (especially that relating to confidence) his reflective score was lower.

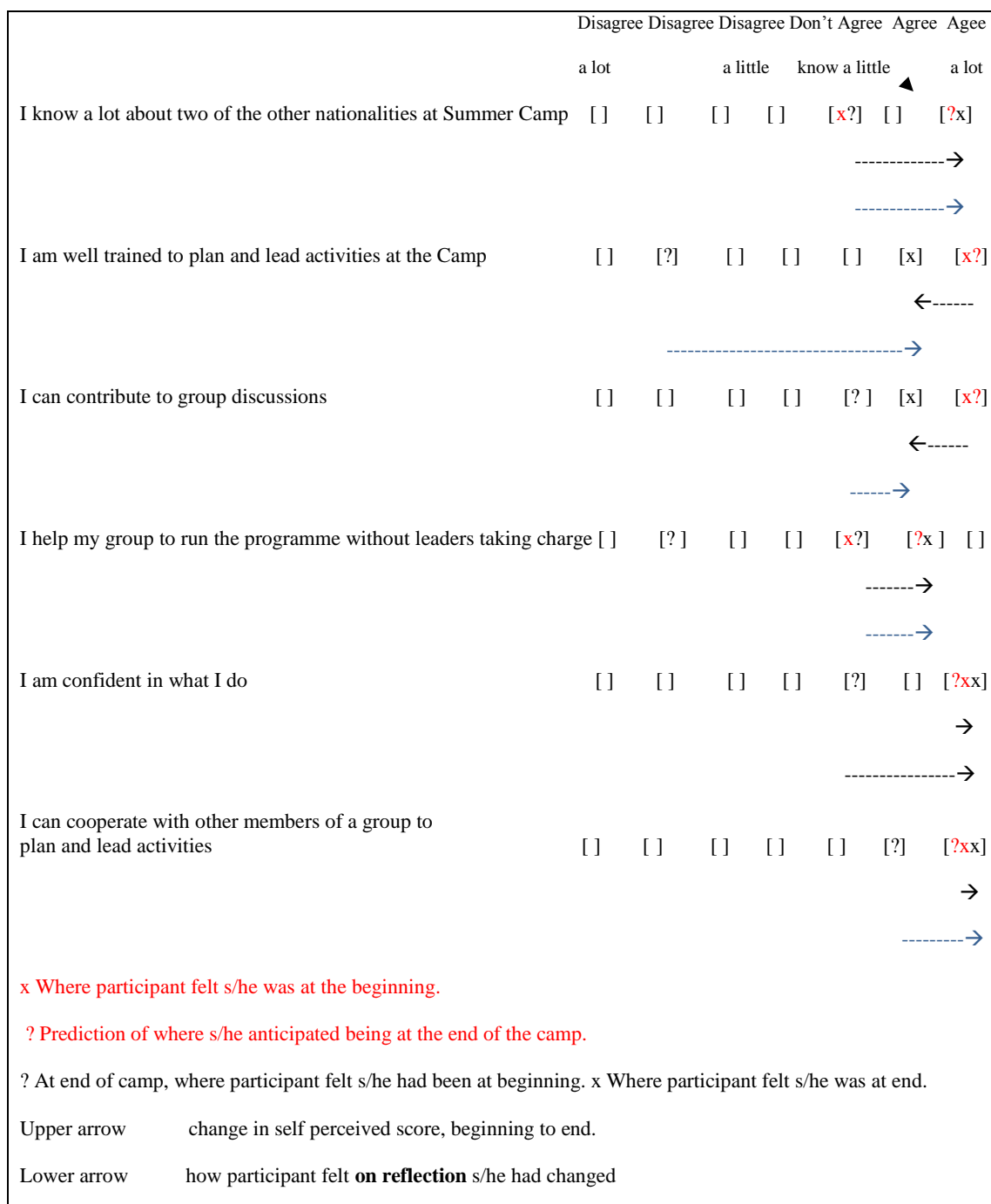


Figure 5.18 Changes on a PaRQ: Example 3, Country A, M2

The charts showing records of change for all participants are given in appendix 10. Those used above show different ways in which three participants viewed some of their positions at the beginning and end of the programme. Use of the arrows on

summary charts such as these provides a clear visual image of each individual participant's change in scores and, thus, of their perceived learning. Comparison of the position of the tails of each pair of arrows also reveals how participants' perception of their original position for each indicator statement changed between beginning and end of the programme.

5.3.3 Youth perceptions of learning outcomes reported in narrative spaces

The questionnaire which youth participants completed at the end of the Summer Camp was designed with spaces for each participant to write comments about what s/he understood s/he had learned during the programme and what s/he felt s/he had learned about her/himself. Participants were told that they could write this in their own language or in English. All of the participants provided some comments. Thirty one of the thirty six participants chose to write in English but five participants from South America wrote in Spanish or Brazilian Portuguese (after one of the Brazilian participants had checked that the person to do the translation used Brazilian rather than 'Portuguese' Portuguese). Comments from these five participants were later translated by a native speaker of Brazilian Portuguese who is also competent in Spanish. Collated responses are shown in Appendix 11. Countries of origin for the participants are coded with letters A to J; the boys in each delegation are coded M1, M2 and girls, similarly coded F1, F2.

Individual comments used differing words for the participants' perceptions of learning and of learning about themselves. Key words from the comments in the narrative spaces were highlighted and grouped to facilitate thematic analysis. The words used by participants to express their ideas about general learning in the Summer Camp were grouped as shown in the table below.

Things I learned at the Summer Camp: Key words	Occurrence
Cultures, other countries	18
Communication (communicating, listen/listening, language, English)	13
Planning groups / planning activities	10
Respect (for culture, friends, ideas of others)	8
Team work, team building, working together	7
Friends / friendship	5
Patience / self control	4
Confidence	3
Tensions / conflicts / challenges / problems	3
Making the world a better place / care for others	3
Leading / leadership	2

Table 5.2: Key words identified in narrative space in response to the question “Please tell us a few things that you learned by coming to the Summer Camp.”

It can be seen from this table that half of the 36 participants mentioned learning about other countries or cultures and over a third of them mentioned improvement in their communication, language or English skills. The four participants from country A, for example, each mentioned learning about other countries or cultures in a different way:

First of all, of course, I learned a lot of things about other cultures that sometimes I’d never even heard of. Learned how to act in the middle of such different people and how to sort out some tensions and conflicts that occasionally might appear. (Country A, F1)

In this camp I learned much more than I expected. I learned lots of wonderful cultures, learned to respect my friends, also learned that friendship is something very valuable and it doesn’t matter where you are from or which is your culture, all of us can be friends and all of us can always learn more to make the world better (make a better world). (Country A, F2)

Respect the cultures, don't think someone is boring until you really know them.
(Country A, M1)

Different cultures
How to lead with success
How to act in groups
How to react in complicated situations
To live with differences (Country A, M2)

It was noticeable that although three of the delegations (Great Britain, USA and Canada) would be expected to claim English as their home language, a third of the total number of participants mentioned improvement in communication or English skills. Only one girl from the three countries with English as a first language mentioned “communicating with a language barrier” (Country B, F1), indicating that the majority of comments related to communication, language or use of English were from participants for whom English was an additional language. In fact, almost half of these participants commented on some aspect of language or communication in response to this question about general learning in the Summer Camp. The boys from country D, for example, wrote:

I learned that I am not good at english (sic) . . . and make (sic) my ideas clear as I think . . . (Country D, M1)

I can communicate better with other people. (Country D, M2)

One of the girls from a Mediterranean country noted, “I learned how to communicate with people who don't speak good English” (Country F, F2), although her leader did not credit her with achievement of goal indicators 2c and 2d, relating to contributing to group discussions and to suggesting solutions to solve problems. All of the participants from another Mediterranean country reported that they felt their English had improved. Development of language proficiency is not one of the programme goals, (or a goal of any CISV programmes) but is considered to be complementary to

the development of intercultural competence, as posited by Fantini (2000), and discussed in chapter one.

Receptive language, listening to what others said, was seen as an important aspect of learning by several participants and grouped with other aspects of communication in the tables above. Comments on this included:

Learned to hear others opinions that are different to mine. (Country C, F2)

Listen to other people. (Country D, F1)

In this camp I learned listening to other people , . . . (Country D, F2)

` I learnt that we have to listen and accept other ideas. (Country G, F1)

Cooperate and listen to others. (Country G, M2)

In Summer Camps most of the activities are organised by the participants themselves, working in planning groups which, typically, have members from six or seven different countries. These groups are seen as valuable in developing communication skills, both listening and oral, as noted above. They are also seen by participants as useful in developing their planning and organisational abilities, noted in comments such as:

The planning groups helped me to think outside the box to get a conclusion for a problem, as well as in my confidence to step up and lead. (Country A, F1)

. . . how to plan and organise activities . . . (Country D, F2)

I'm more useful in my planning group to plan activities. (Country D, M2)

. . . I have also learned how to plan activities better . . . (Country J, M2)

Aspects of cooperation were less frequently mentioned under general learning (seven participants, 19%) and were sometimes referred to as “team work” or group participation:

How to act in groups. (Country B, M2)

To work in groups better and to contribute in discussion. (Country E, F1)

How to participate in a group. (Country F, F3)

Teamwork. (Country G, F2)

The word 'respect' was used by eight participants (22%) in their responses to the first question, but in a range of contexts such as:

Respect the cultures, don't think someone is boring until you really know them. (Country A, M1)

Respect other people's ideas. (Country C, F2)

Respect other's feelings. (Country G, M2)

The quotation from Country A, F2, given above in relation to learning about other countries or cultures, mentioned friendship, stating, "[I] also learned that friendship is something very valuable and it doesn't matter where you are from or which is your culture, all of us can be friends." Similarly, both girls in Country B claimed that participation in the Summer Camp had made it easier to make friends. However, friends or friendship was only noted by five (14%) of the participants, although observation of their behaviour noted some very close friendships between several specific boys and girls.

Other ideas that were mentioned by more than one participant in their reporting of general learning were confidence, words related to tensions or conflict, words related to improving the world or caring for others, each mentioned by three participants (9%), and leadership, mentioned by two (6%). The picture was somewhat different when the key words used in the second question, "Now please tell us what you learned about yourself by coming to this Summer Camp," were analysed, as shown below.

Things I learned about myself: Key Words	Occurrence
Self / sort of person I am	15
Communication / listening to others / language / English	14
Confidence	10
Leading / leadership	7
Friends / Friendship	5
Patience / self control	4
Respect for culture / friends / ideas of others	3
Tensions / conflicts / challenges	3
Planning groups / activities	3
Cultures / other countries	2
Trust others	2
Make the world a better place / care for others	1

Table 5.3: Key words identified in narrative space in response to the question “Please tell us what you learned about yourself by coming to this Summer Camp”

The most frequent comments made by participants in answering this second question demonstrate their ability to reflect on personal or attitudinal learning (42% of participants) and, again, on communication and language skills (39% of participants).

Comments on personal change included:

. . .here at this summer camp I feel like I have a better perception of who I am, what others see in me and what role I take in certain situations. (Country A, F1)

I learned that I’ve got a strong personality and that I need to learn to control myself. (Country C, F1)

This camp taught me many things about myself. I learned that I’m good at translating Spanish, I learned that I’m a natural leader, I learned that I choose my friends wisely, and most importantly I learned who I am as a person and that I am not a shallow friend or companion. (Country J, M2)

. . .help me to realise that I can open myself and this can change the life. (sic) (Country C, M1)

I know better myself and my personality, I understand what I feel
(Country H, M1)

Some comments about language and communication were similar to those offered as responses to the more general question about learning, but others demonstrated a thoughtful level of introspection, for example:

I can speak out my mind, and people would / could agree with my thoughts.
(Country C, M2)

One girl (Country B, F2) felt that she had improved her ability to speak in front of others, claiming:

I've learned to be a better speaker in front of a group of people without talking really fast and stuttering,

However, another girl was less confident, suggesting she had learned:

That I am not very confident in speaking in front of many people, especially in another language. (Country F, F3)

Only three participants had mentioned confidence in the more general question, but, in contrast to this last quotation, ten (28%) used an expression which indicated growing confidence when they were asked what they had learned about themselves, for example:

I'm more confident in what I do. (Country B, F2)

To have more confidence in myself. (Country E, M1)

I am definitely more confident in what I do. I've realised I can do anything.
(Country J, F2)

Rather more participants mentioned leading or leadership in commenting on their learning about themselves than in the more general 'learning in the programme' question (7, 19%). One of the boys in Country B (M2) wrote: "I am a leader. I led many activities and a camp meeting." Both of the girls in the same delegation also claimed that they had learned how to be a leader and a more detailed, thoughtful comment was given by one of the girls from country F (F1), who wrote:

I've learned that being part of a leader (sic) [part of being a leader] is really understanding your group, and being able to step down when you can. ['] Cause most of the time you won't be the only one that can lead.

As in answers to the earlier question, five participants commented on friends or developing friendships in answer to this question on learning about oneself:

I learned that I can count on new friends . . . (Country A, F2)

I learned that I choose my friends wisely. (Country J, M2)

Smaller numbers of participants commented on respect (3, 8%), Culture or other countries (2, 6%), and trust of others (2, 6%) but in addition to the comments about personal or attitudinal learning mentioned above, two other categories emerged that had not been mentioned in the more general question about learning. These small categories related to patience or self-control (4, 11%) and to comments on tensions, conflicts or challenges (3, 8%), and included:

Being tolerant makes you stronger and prepares you to (sic) major conflict you could have in the future. (Country C, M1)

I learned that I can open my mind to challenges and that I can solve them . . . (Country A, F2)

It might have been expected that there would be more comments related to conflict as the educational theme to be emphasised in the year of the programme was

conflict and resolution. However, the Camp Director had commented in conversation that the theme had not been explored as thoroughly as she anticipated and two of the leaders noted in their interviews that activities later in the programme (a time when educational aspects are expected to be developed in some depth) had been rather superficial.

In summary, a similar number of participants mentioned communication skills in the space for reporting “learning about myself” as in the general question about “learning in the summer camp”, while 28% noted an improved level of confidence. For example, one girl (Country F, F2) wrote:

I learned how to communicate with people who don't speak good English. I also learned about other cultures and I met so many people from around the world.

Her compatriot (Country F, F1) also drew attention to learning about the culture of those from other countries and suggested that the camp experience may have helped her to overcome perceptions of national stereotypes:

In this Summer Camp I learned that first it is not the place that makes the camp but mostly the people. I think that you learn about different cultures and how to control your judgement that has come with you from your own country.

One of the other girls (Country D, F2) noted all three of the topics which were most frequently reported as learning when she wrote:

In the camp I learned listening to other people, respect different cultures, how to plan and organise activities . . . And of course I made so many friends.

While most of the comments relating to confidence indicated that the participant felt her/his confidence had improved, for example, the South American girl who wrote, “I am more confident to take the lead when needed and to deal with different people,” there was one participant who wrote “I’m not as brave and confident as I thought”

(Country G, F1) and there was another girl who suggested that she had learned that she was not very confident in speaking in front of a group of other people, especially in an additional language (Country F, F3).

Within the Summer Camp programme the youth participants worked in groups to plan and conduct their activities. Ten participants (28%) mentioned “planning” or “how to plan activities” in their narrative about what they had learned. One of the girls from Country D brought this together with the listening aspect of communication and the recognition of cultural differences when she wrote, “In this camp I learned listening to other people, respecting different cultures, how to plan and organise activities” (Country D, F2). The value of effective cooperation in planning was acknowledged by another girl when she wrote. “Well planned activities are the only fun activities,” (Country E, F2). This girl, among the seven participants (19%) who suggested team work or a similar phrase, also brought together the ideas of work in the planning groups and communication, and mentioned expressive communication, when she claimed that she had learned, “To work in groups better and to contribute in discussions.”

One of the four goals of the Summer Camp programme is to develop leadership skills but, as shown in the table above, this was not mentioned directly by many participants. One participant from country C, noted earlier, made an interesting comment when she wrote, “. . . not always are you going to be the leader. There are other leaders in the world and we must listen to them,” (Country C, F1). However, other comments (some also noted above), suggested that some participants were more positive about their leadership learning, making statements such as: “I can be a leader,” (Country B, F1) or “I have learned that being part of [part of being] a leader is really understanding your group,” (Country F, F1).

In contrast to the way in which he placed himself on the PaRQ at the end of the programme, the male participant, six of whose responses are shown earlier (Figure 5.17), made a list of “Things that I learned in this programme”, which suggests that he felt he had learned more than would be recorded by simply taking note of his placement on the scaled questionnaire. He noted:

- Different cultures
- How to lead with success *
- How to act in groups *
- How to react in complicated situations
- To live with differences.

The two starred items are interesting in that they relate to the second and third items on the extract of indicators reported in Figure 5.18, section 5.3.2, above. He put his reflective mark for “I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp” four places lower than he had initially placed himself yet notes in his list of learning that he had learned “How to lead with success”. Similarly, at the end of the programme he placed himself at a lower position of agreement with “I can contribute to group discussions” than he had recorded at the beginning, but he noted in his narrative spaces that an aspect of his learning was “How to act in groups”. He was not the only participant to show an apparent regression in score so this will be discussed in the next chapter.

5.4 Use of the Programme Director’s Planning and Evaluation Form (PDPEF) Section 2: Group Evaluation Form

Findings of an earlier research project in CISV had suggested that adults in CISV programmes perceived the Group Evaluation Form (GEF) section of the PDPEF as simply a reporting mechanism. On-line guidance referred to its use for programme

monitoring and to support planning. Use of the GEF and the interviews with leaders in the Summer Camp were designed to explore this in more depth.

5.4.1 Recording participant achievement of goal indicators

The questionnaires completed by leaders at the beginning of the Summer Camp asked them to note how many members of their delegation they felt had already achieved each of the programme indicators and to predict how many members they expected to have achieved these indicators by the end of the programme. With nine delegation leaders each predicting the scores for 12 indicators there were a possible 108 predictions ranging from none of the members of the delegation would complete the indicator, (predicted by leader C for indicator 2b, by leader G for 3d and by leader H for 2b, 3a, 3b, and 3c) to full completion by all four delegation members, predicted in over half of the situations, as shown in table 5.4, below.

Number of delegation members predicted to achieve indicator	Number of predictions	%
0	6	6
1	2	2
2	14	13
3	28	26
4	58	54

Table 5.4: Leader predictions of number of delegation members who would achieve each number of indicators (n=108)

At the beginning of the programme a member of the host staff had prepared a wall chart for the Group Evaluation Form (GEF), a matrix on which achievement of programme goal indicators could be checked off for each youth participant. Also at the

beginning of the programme staff members led the leaders in a discussion about the nature of behaviour that could be used as evidence of achievement. Leaders were encouraged to record achievement of indicators on the chart for any participant whenever they observed it during the programme. Leaders were later provided with Individual Evaluation Forms (IEF), one for each member of their own delegation, on which they could write a little about each youth participant's progress and achievement. At the end of the programme the records of achievement were copied from the GEF to the online form which is required to be submitted to CISV International for programme monitoring purposes. A copy of the completed form was supplied by CISV International for use in this research and copies of the IEFs were forwarded by the programme director.

Before moving on to consider the goals and indicators in more detail, a summary of the achievement recorded by leaders at the end of the programme shows some difference from the predictions recorded above.

Number of delegation members achieving indicator	Records of achievement	% achieved	(% predicted)
0	3	3	(6)
1	6	6	(2)
2	11	10	(13)
3	17	16	(26)
4	71	66	(54)

Table 5.5: Leader records of number of delegation members who achieved each number of indicators (n=108)

It is noted here that although there appear to be considerable differences between the percentages of participants predicted by leaders to achieve a high proportion of the indicators and the actual percentage doing so, the greatest difference is between the

prediction that three delegation members would achieve an indicator and all four members eventually being scored as doing so. The figures for indicators 3a and 3b, shown below, illustrate variations in predictions and final scores made by individual delegation leaders for just these two indicators. The summed predictions and records of achievement (shown later as Figure 5.20) conceal some of the discrepancies between prediction and achievement made and recorded by individual leaders. Charts for all indicators are given in appendix 12.

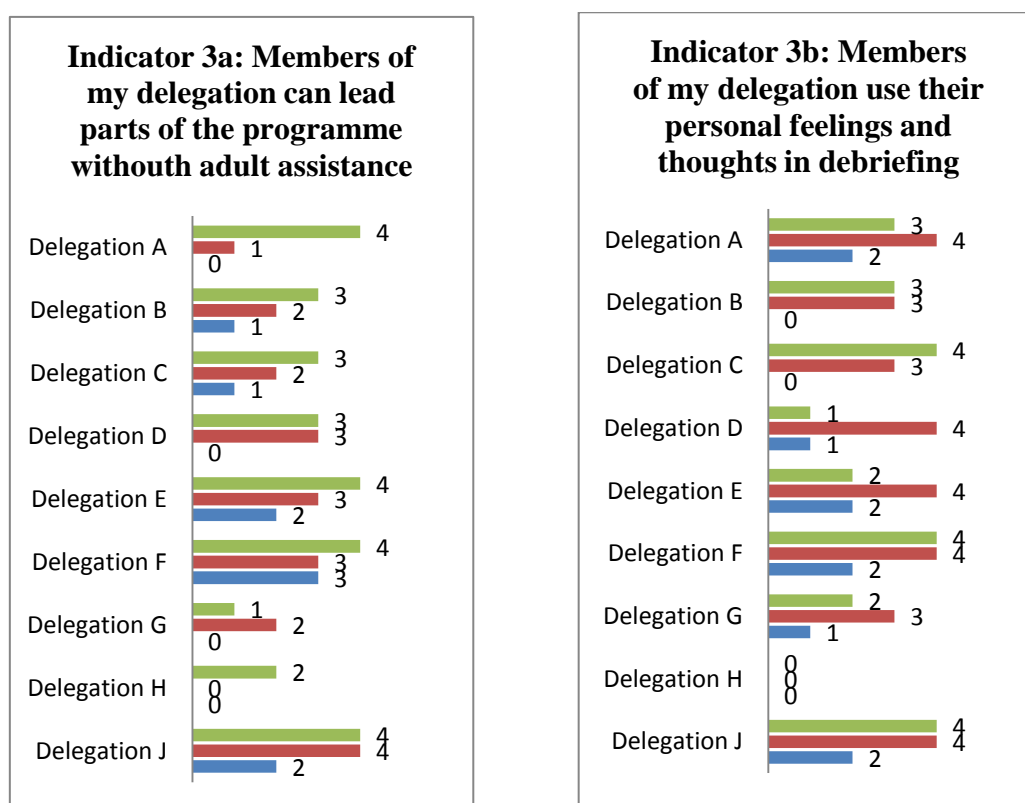


Figure 5.19: Examples of leader records of delegation members already achieved indicator at beginning of programme (blue), predicted to achieve it during programme (red), scored as achieving it at end of programme (green)

5.4.2 Participant achievement of goal indicators

Achievement of the indicators noted below was recorded on the GEF, towards the end of the programme, but as discussed in the initial leaders' preparation weekend. The four goals of the Summer Camp programme are:

1. Develop intercultural awareness
2. Develop leadership skills
3. Develop self awareness
4. Develop cooperative skills

With respective indicators:

- 1a. Share own culture with the camp
- 1b. Learn about at least two other cultures through different activities
- 2a. Receive training on how to plan and lead an activity, before and during the first days of camp
- 2b. Participate in planning and running activities
- 2c. Contribute during group discussion
- 2d. Suggest solutions and solve problems objectively
- 3a. Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders
- 3b. Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts
- 3c. Express independent ideas to promote group development
- 3d. Increase self confidence
- 4a. Work together as a team in planning and leading activities
- 4b. Help others feel included in the group

The completed Group Evaluation Form (GEF), shown below, records participant achievement of the individual indicators, achievement being marked with a cross and a blank space meaning that the indicator was not seen to be achieved. This is all that is required for reporting to CISV International so that results from similar programmes can be collated as consolidated evidence of learning through CISV participation.

Comments on the learning of each participant can be noted on an I E F.

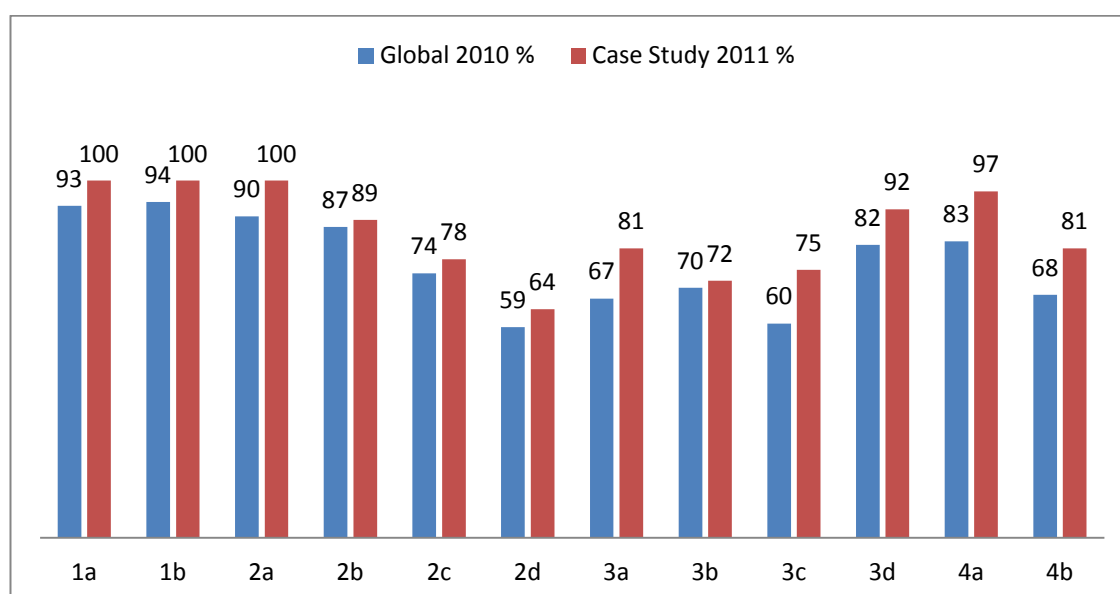
Table 5.6 Summer Camp Group Evaluation Form

Country	Participant	1a	1b	2a	2b	2c	2d	3a	3b	3c	3d	4a	4b
A	F1	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X
	F2	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	M1	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X
	M2	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
B	M1	X	X	X							X		
	M2	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	F1	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	F2	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
C	F1	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	F2	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	M1	X	X	X	X	X			X		X	X	X
	M2	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
D	F1	X	X	X				X	X	X	X	X	
	F2	X	X	X	X	X		X	X		X	X	
	M1	X	X	X		X			X		X	X	
	M2	X	X	X	X			X	X		X	X	
E	F1	X	X	X	X	X		X		X	X	X	X
	F2	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	M1	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	M2	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X
F	F1	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	F2	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	F3	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	M1	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
G	F1	X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X	X	
	F2	X	X	X								X	
	M1	X	X	X	X							X	X
	M2	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
H	M1	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X
	M2	X	X	X	X	X		X		X	X	X	X
	F1	X	X	X	X						X	X	X
	F2	X	X	X	X						X	X	X

Table 5.6 Summer Camp Group Evaluation Form (continued)

Country	Participant	1a	1b	2a	2b	2c	2d	3a	3b	3c	3d	4a	4b
J	M1	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	M2	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	F1	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	F2	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

Comparison of the scores reported above with those on the same indicators collated from similar programmes in the previous year suggested that they followed a similar profile of scores, although at a slightly higher level, as shown in Figure 5.20, below.

**Figure 5.20: Achievement of goal indicators: Global data 2010 /Case Study 2011**

With only 36 participants, each individual represents almost three percentage points so in most cases these differences are quite marginal. However, indicators 3a, 3c, 4a and 4b show greater variations from the mean of the previous year. These four indicators (I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge; I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand; I can cooperate with other members of the group to plan and lead activities; I can make sure that all

members of the group feel included in our plans) all seem to be related to group cohesion and cooperation. This was reflected in interview comments made by leaders, one of whom stated:

I think that it's been like it has a very fast start – at the beginning all the kids were like very, they were working together very well . . . I think by the end of the first week most of the kids were 'in the group'. (Leader C)

In summary, figure 5.20 shows that six of the twelve indicators were achieved by 89% or more of the participants with three of them being achieved by all. Indicators 2c, 3a, 4b, which concern aspects of working in a group, were achieved by 28 or 29 of the 36 participants (78% and 81% respectively). Just three indicators were achieved by 75% or fewer of the participants. These were three indicators in which participant's use of language may have been a relevant factor. More than half of the participants (19 of the 36, or 53%) achieved all indicators and twenty seven (75%) achieved ten or more indicators, as shown below.

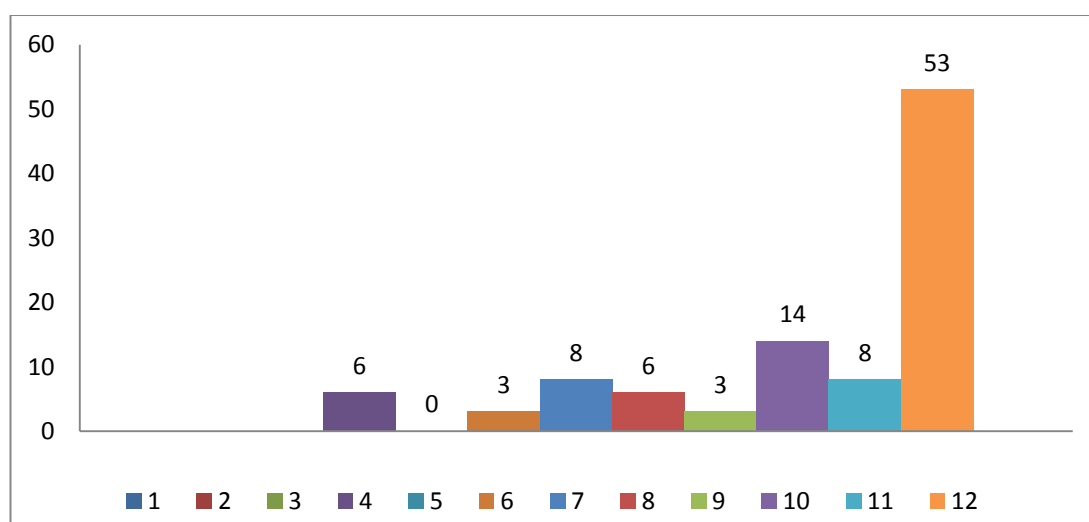


Figure 5.21: Percentages of participants achieving number of indicators

Two participants (6%) were scored as only achieving four indicators. Their respective leaders had commented in informal conversations that these were a boy from country B who showed less mature behaviour than other participants and who had difficulty in establishing relationships with others, and a girl from country H who was rather passive and had difficulty integrating into the camp.

It was noted in section 5.4.1, above, that the leaders were asked to complete an initial questionnaire on which they could state how many members of their delegation they felt had already achieved each indicator and how many they expected to have achieved it by the end of the programme. The responses on these quick questionnaires were compared with the final records on the GEF shown earlier. As noted earlier, a Summer Camp has nine delegations of four participants and as there are twelve indicators for the programme goals there were a total of 108 potential leader predictions. For 60 (56%) of these predictions the number of participants achieving the goal on the GEF was the same as that suggested by the leaders. In 32 cases (30%) more participants achieved the indicator than the leaders had forecast and in 15 cases (14%) fewer than the forecast number of participants achieved the indicator. Variations in predictions made by individual delegation leaders are shown on the charts in appendix 12.

Figure 5.22, on the next page, suggests that in most cases the number of participants achieving an indicator was quite close to the forecast made by the leaders, but it must be noted that summing results has obscured some of the differences suggested by table 5.6. However, for statements 4 (Indicator 2b: Participate in planning and running activities) and 7 (Indicator 3a: Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders), ten and five, respectively, more participants than predicted achieved the indicator.

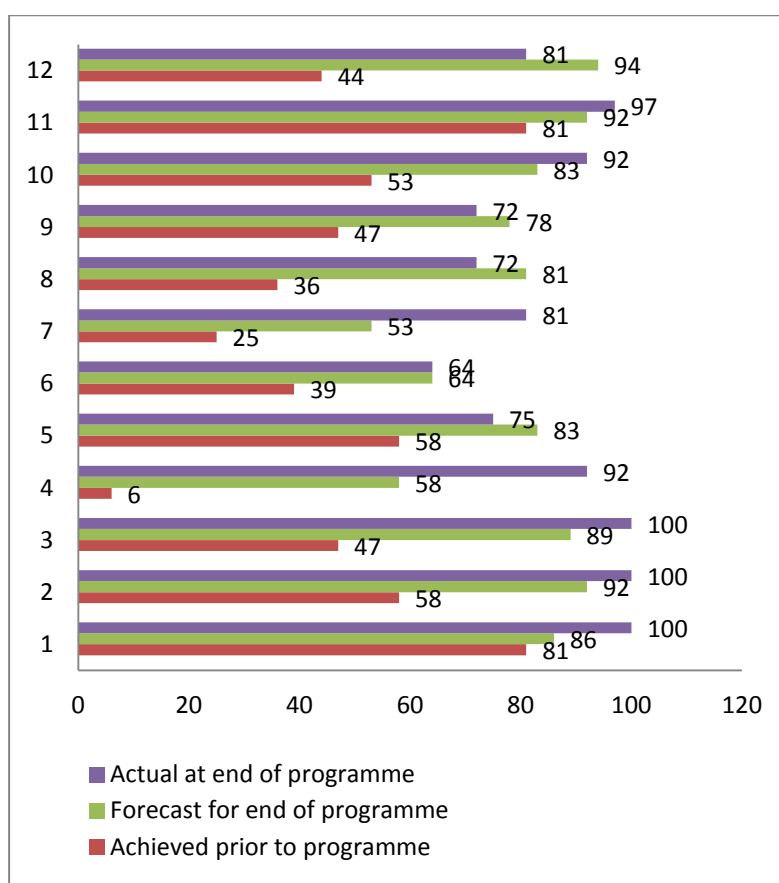


Figure 5.22 Leader predictions and participant achievements, total percentage of participants for each indicator statement

5.4.3 Records on Individual Evaluation Forms (IEF)

The Individual Evaluation Forms (IEF) have space for a short comment on the participant’s performance for each indicator and so provide a means for leaders to give a more nuanced response than the act of marking achievement of the indicator on the GEF, (See Table 5.6). Collected by the Camp Director at the end of the programme, the IEF provide a means of checking each Leader’s perception of his / her group member’s learning against the record made on the GEF. Although the comments on the IEF were very brief, they do give some indication of **how** certain indicators were achieved.

The first two of the twelve indicators, “Share own culture with the camp” and “Learn about at least two other cultures through different activities” are, effectively, built into the camp structure as each delegation leads an activity session in which they present aspects of their own culture and organise related activities for their fellow participants. Leaders regularly commented on the IEF that participants had achieved these indicators through participation in the cultural activities planned by other delegations. An example of a cultural activity in which the researcher was able to take part was reported earlier. In this, one delegation split the Summer Camp participants into four groups. Two of these groups learned both some basic steps for the national style of dance and were taught how to write their name in the distinctive script while the third group were briefed on the origin of the delegation’s capital city and the fourth group on the revolution which had taken place in the country some years previously. The groups then did presentations of the dance steps and dramatic re-enactments of the origin of the capital city or of the revolution, according to the group to which they were assigned. These presentations were followed by videos of sites of historic importance and expert dancing. In a second observed cultural activity delegation G started the first session of the morning by strewing corridors with litter in order to start their fellow participants thinking about what life is like in their home city where litter has not been collected for several months. Participants then took part in an activity where they acquired words to be used in slogans for banners to be used in simulations of demonstrations about the closure of the rubbish dumps around the city. After this they were shown a video of the city streets and the accumulating rubbish and engaged in discussion about the corruption which was causing these difficulties.

As a result of preparing or taking part in these shared activities all participants were reported to have achieved indicators 1a and 1b. One leader also noted that one of her participants had actively engaged in trying to teach some of his language to others

during free time. Indicator 2a, “Receive training on how to plan and lead an activity before and during the first days of camp,” was also noted as being achieved universally. At the beginning of the Camp the staff members had organised an activity to demonstrate what would be needed for a well-planned activity and leaders used this same activity with the youth participants on their first day in camp. Five of the nine delegation leaders also reported pre-camp training in their home nations when noting participant learning on the IEFs. For Indicator 2b, “Participate in planning and running activities,” again the camp structure facilitated achievement with groups of participants from various nations working together to plan parts of the programme. Comments included:

Very active on her planning group and leading activities. (Country A, F1)

Many ideas on how to plan. (Country E, F1)

One of the more outspoken in his planning group. Often led the explanation of an activity. (Country J, M1)

Occasionally, comments revealed the fact that this indicator had two parts, such as the comment, after agreeing achievement of the indicator, which stated “Planning groups, although he didn’t run any activity,” (Country C, M1). Three of the participants did not achieve this indicator, possibly due to difficulties in using English for communication with the level of proficiency needed to take part in such discussion.

There was greater variation in comment on indicator 2c, “Contribute during group discussion”, achieved by 28 of the 36 participants, and indicator 2d, “Suggest solutions and solve problems objectively”, achieved by the lowest number of participants (23, 65%). Generally, leaders did not write anything on the IEF for indicators that had not been achieved, but two of the nine leaders suggested that some of their participants had not achieved these indicators due to difficulties in using English. Difficulty in finding

the right language was also cited for some of the ten participants who had not achieved indicator 3b, “Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts” but was not mentioned for seven who did not achieve 3a, “Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders.” This indicator had a range of positive responses from “Good input in planning group but reluctant to lead activities,” (Country E, F1) to “Led several activities alone,” (country E, F2), reflecting the observed variety of competence and willingness to be exposed to such a role. Indicator 3c, “Express independent ideas to promote group development,” elicited comments from some leaders about where this took place, often in planning group or in delegation time but noted by two leaders to have occurred in activity debriefing or during activity time: “In debriefing and planning,” (Country A, F1), and “During activities” (Country G, M2). Indicator 3d, “Increase self confidence”, had responses relating to eleven participants that indicated they were already very confident at the beginning of the programme so progress for them was minimal, whereas other participants had “Slight, but noticeable, increase” (Country E, F1) or even elicited the comment, “It was a great change. I’m impressed.” (Country H, M2). The final two indicators relate to the goal “Develop cooperative skills”, (4a) focusing on working in a group, and (4b) considering how the participant can help others feel included in a group. Most leaders simply indicated “in the planning group” as their response to 4a, although one leader offered more, writing “Collaborated well with others in planning group; able to listen to other perspectives and ideas,” (Country J, M2). The final indicator had a wider range of responses reflecting various attributes of individual participants and the variety of situations in which behaviour had been observed. Comments included: “Specially (sic) during free times” (Country A, F2), “Helped another kid to solve his problems and work on his relationship with the group,” (Country C, F1), and, “She asks the people who don’t talk easily to tell their point of view and she encourages them,” (Country F, F1).

5.5 Adult Leaders' views on programme development and on the purpose and use of the PDPEF Section 2: Group Evaluation Form

The nine delegation leaders had all agreed to be interviewed. Most of the interviews were held during a period of “free time” at a picnic table some distance from the main buildings used for the Summer Camp. This was planned to minimise noise interference from the informal youth activities, however an unpredicted helicopter overhead masked the recording of a short part of one of the interviews. These informal interviews were audio-recorded and later transcribed. Key words in the transcriptions were highlighted to help in the identification of shared topics. Responses were then tabulated according to comments on the identified key topics.

5.5.1 Interview comments on participant progress

Five of the nine leaders had recent experience in leadership roles in CISV Villages (for age 11 years) or Summer Camps (for age 14 or 15), the two male leaders having taken adult roles on multiple occasions. A further leader had been on Village Staff several years previously, although prior to the institution of the use of the PDPEF, so only three of the nine leaders were completely new to an adult leadership role in a CISV programme. With this range of experience, detailed in the table on the next page, it was possible for several of these leaders to reflect on how their use of the PDPEF / GEF in the case study programme was similar to or differed from its use in other programmes in which they had taken leadership roles.

Leader	Previous leadership experience
A	Leader to Village, Finland, 2010, and in own national camps
B	Staff in Village about ten years ago
C	Leader 3 times previously, Village Director in home country 2008
D	Leader to Summer Camp, Italy, 2010
E	Leader to 3 Youth Meetings and to Village GB 2010
F	Leader to Summer Camp, Finland, 2010
G	First time leader
H	First time leader
J	First time leader

Table 5.7: Previous CISV experience of leaders

When asked if use of the GEF in a previous programme had actually recorded what was happening Leader A responded:

No. I don't think so . . . we had the papers with us and the big paper . . . [a matrix chart] on the wall – and it was easily forgotten on the wall. So it wasn't something we could just go up to there and see 'OK now maybe we should focus a bit more on other goals,' so we didn't have a clear picture It wasn't clear; like, I have mine, the Norwegian leader has theirs, but it wasn't clear on the wall so it wasn't something that everyone was sharing the whole time.

This suggested that the GEF had been used by individual leaders as a record of participant achievement, but had not become a reference document for programme planning. Somewhat similarly, Leader E commented that the GEF used in the CISV Village where he was leader in a previous year was, “. . . used as a way of kind of gauging where the group was, if they were ready to move on to the next step,” but when asked if its use influenced activity planning he commented, “To be fair, it was probably more of a gut feeling among the leaders rather than relying on the PDPEF that we had, because I think that way people are more honest about how their kids are feeling.”

One of the other leaders outlined her experience in a previous programme, explaining: “. . . every leaders’ meeting we were talking about four or five kids from each delegation. So we could see how the kids were going through the activities or the planning groups. . . . So all the leaders should say something about one kid. . . . it was very helpful and also the leader had feedback about their kids,” (Leader F). However it was clear from other comments in her interview that the focus on use of the form had been on the progress and achievement of individual participants. Completion of the GEF had not influenced programme or activity planning.

Interviews also included discussion about the structuring of the educational experience in the current programme, which related to use of the PDPEF, and of the ways in which activities had been planned and organised in order to accomplish the programme goals. As first time Leader H stated: “. . . we had, like, four levels of activities; first the name games and then progress [using communication activities] into trust games and some simulation . . .” Leaders with previous experience reported that both in their previous programmes and in the current Summer Camp the development of relationships and phase of the programme, as suggested in the previous quote and often referred to as “steps” in programme development (see Chapter 5, figure 5.2) had been taken into account when planning activities. For example, Leader A stated:

I think we did all the steps like in the, er, in the planning groups. We discussed if we were in a place to change the type of activities, if we were ready for trusting games.

Leader B made a similar comment regarding the members of her planning group, stating that “They understand the steps and they’re following it.” However, two of the more experienced leaders suggested that, in this particular programme, the participants had made quick progress through the initial stages of programme development but later

activities had not had the depth that might have been expected. One of these commented:

I think that the kids, like, reached a peak and that was, like, I think was the end of the second week. And then they started to decline. I mean they couldn't keep up with the growing line. That way I think that most of the activities that happened the last few days are very 'thin' activities. I mean they don't want to put much effort on.
(Leader C)

Other leaders had commented on the way in which members of the planning group they assisted had worked together, with some being more successful than others. Leaders D and H were engaged in a conversational interview and leader H responded to Leader D's comments on work in a planning group:

It's the same in my group. Three of the group have experience before and they know the energisers and every game, and when we plan something they just say, 'Oh, we can play this game' and the other guys don't have any idea what game it is and the game is already planned. And only three or four guys speak all the time and others are silent . . .

This contrasts with the impression of another, more experienced, leader working with the same group who suggested that two participants who were initially dominant had involved others and some who were quiet had eventually made valuable contributions:

We had a couple of kids who – and I think this was more of a personality problem than a language problem – there was maybe three or four kids who in the first few groups kind of dominated the sessions. But I was quite pleased with them because sort of without me or [another leader] saying anything; they kind of took a step back for the next one and tried to bring the other kids in. . . . And it was successful for quite a while, but then – there was, like, two kids in particular who were really, really quiet and have been throughout camp – voluntarily took a step back and had to be really pulled into it, you know. . . .

If you get ten or twelve people together there's always going to be somebody – or a group of people – who take the lead and a group of people who are less, sort of, forthcoming. . . .

Sometimes they surprised me as well. I mean, a couple of times when a kid who hasn't been very involved has come up with a fantastic idea. . . . (Leader E)

Yet another leader, who was also taking part in her first CISV programme, explained how she and her partner adult in the planning group adopted a deliberate strategy to ensure that all the youth participants were encouraged to contribute to group discussions. She suggested:

. . . . I think a lot of them are internal thinkers and struggle to express their ideas, but we did find a system that worked well and the last couple of planning sessions when we split them up. So, the more verbal, we put those together, and the more quiet ones together and told them that they need to come up with an idea and then told them that when they come back to the group they need to present their ideas and we dialogued about it as a group and then we finalised the plans and we hand out jobs, because if we didn't do that four or five of them would be participating and engaging and two of them, three of them, would not be able to do so, and that helps them and their programming skills . . . (Leader J)

This is in contrast to the opinion of the other leader working with the same group who simply described the planning group as “struggling” (leader B). Contrasting comments indicate some subjectivity in views, potentially related to previous experience in CISV and / or in other youth organisations as well as to personal perspectives and experience in group work.

5.5.2 Leaders' comments on the use of the PDPEF Group Evaluation Form for evaluation and planning

Most commonly, in both their previous programmes and for the programme in which they were being interviewed, the leaders saw the PDPEF, by which they meant the GEF section, as a means for evaluating the progress of the youth participants. One leader stated that he felt it is “a kind of reporting mechanism for head office” and

continued, “I probably don’t use it as much as I could during the programme . . . to me it’s a kind of back up thing.” (Leader E) He went on to explain that it was not clear how the information entered was to be used, suggesting that although it is not difficult to fill in “it’s just one of those things that’s got to be done.” Some other leaders found it more complex in that they did not like having to make a “yes or no” decision on whether an indicator had been achieved. There were various suggestions for marking scales towards achievement or having space to note more detail, and one comment that youth participants might show behaviour on one day from which achievement of an indicator would be noted, but on a subsequent day they might show behaviour which was contradictory.

Other leaders suggested that the purpose of the PDPEF was “to see how the content of the camp is aligned with the goals” (Leader A) or “to track the stages of development of the camp and types of activities” (Leader D). In response to questioning as to whether she found the PDPEF more useful for evaluation of the progress of individual participants or for the overall programme, leader J suggested that in her delegation time she would focus on the development of the youth participants in her own delegation while during a planning group session she would be considering both the development of the young people in the group and the progress of the programme. She said:

I think that I would say I find it helpful for both; just in terms of when I’m in my planning group – you know I have another leader and staff member with me – we are constantly evaluating our planning group and constantly, like, within our planning group evaluating the camp itself . . . but then I think that every single day the time slots of the day provide the PDPEF to be used in a different way. Like when we have the planning group we evaluate the whole camp, where we’re going with our programming, and in delegation time I’m evaluating my kids and I’m evaluating where they’re at in their process and the conversations that we need to have, you know, and when we’re participating in activities then we’re again re-evaluating.

As noted above, this comment was in response to questioning about use of the PDPEF / GEF, none of the leaders spontaneously mentioned the “planning” aspect of the form, either for initial planning or for identification of areas that needed further work within the programme. Leader F talked about a previous programme in which a designated time had been set aside within each leader’s meeting to focus on the progress of a few identified participants. She claimed that this had been useful in helping all leaders to be aware of the indicators they should be checking and in identifying areas of the programme that needed further development, but the emphasis had still been on evaluation of participant progress rather than on programme planning.

It was noted earlier that leaders were encouraged to record participant achievement whenever appropriate behaviour was seen. However, in the programme observed for this project, that did not become routine practice and the GEF was completed during the last few days of the programme. One of the purposes of the GEF, as explained in the online notes for its completion (see: <http://www.cisv.org/resources/evaluation-and-research/evaluation-tools/>), is to monitor progress of the programme as a whole so that, if necessary, the types of activity can be adjusted to ensure that participants have opportunities to work towards all of the programme indicators. As the indicators were only marked off towards the end of the programme no impact of the use of the GEF on programme planning was observed, although this effect had been reported in a few of the interviews for an earlier research project with some leaders to other programmes. (Watson, 2012b)

5.5.3 Leaders’ comments on evaluation and participant co-operation

Leader’s views on the value and nature of evaluation varied. Leaders B and D, for example, advocated self evaluation either using a strategy such as the self-evaluation on

PaRQ or by providing a short selection of topic words on which the participants could write comments at the beginning and end of the programme to see if their perspective had changed. A further leader suggested that such topic words could also be used in the middle of a camp in order to monitor early progress and stressed: “. . . what I mean is that we need an evaluation during the camp, not just at the end of the camp or we need the leaders to appraise the kids more; and it would be an activity, not just in the free time.” (Leader F). Leaders D and G wanted to find ways to get more detail for each youth participant. Leader H suggested that she would prefer to do an individual evaluation of the progress of each member of her delegation:

. . . I think that the evaluation – it’s er – like I prefer to do an evaluation, like an individual one, like we have because you get the chance to say, to write notes, it’s more – like it’s something more personal . . . so if someone has a personality and he keeps it like this it doesn’t mean that he didn’t get the point of the camp or anything. It’s just that maybe he is introverted and, er, he really prefers to talk, for example . . . maybe I think that the personal evaluation it’s way better than the general one. I see the chart and I see, for example [one of my girls] and she’s done very well but she doesn’t have, like, many ticks but that’s just because she’s not like a person who steps up and talks in front of everyone, so you always spot the ones who jump up highest.

In contrast, Leader F described how one member of her delegation had been able to confide in another leader and she suggested “Maybe my kid doesn’t feel comfortable to speak with me, or it’s not the right moment, or he feels comfortable with another leader . . .” However, she acknowledged that this had been a spontaneous occurrence and went on to note the difficulty of arranging a situation in which all participants would feel comfortable to talk in this form of evaluation.

Several observations of activities within the few days at the beginning and end of the programme when the researcher was able to be involved in the Summer Camp programme have been described in earlier sections, for example the national activities

considered in section 5.4.3 and the conflict resolution activities also described earlier in this Chapter. However, it was noticeable that participants, from the beginning of the camp, appeared to come with the intention to co-operate and be friendly towards fellow participants. This perception of consideration for each other was noted in observation and confirmed in the comments made by some leaders, such as Leader C, who suggested “I’ve seen they are all really good friends together.” Similarly, Leader A stated “. . . we’ve had an amazing group of kids . . .” It was also noted in informal conversation with Leader F that an activity planned to generate discomfort and potential conflict between small groups had not done so, as she remarked that the participants were “too nice”. The Camp Director, also in informal conversation, made a similar comment about the nature of participants all being willing to cooperate. There was one boy from country B who had some difficulties in relating to other participants but he was always included by others as a matter of course.

5.6 Comparison of Youth Participant and Adult Leader perceptions of learning

To compare the adult leaders’ and youth participants’ perceptions of participant achievement each participant’s self evaluation placement at the end of the programme was compared with their attainment as noted by adults on the Group Evaluation Form (GEF). In order to do this a number was assigned to their final position on the Likert scale as suggested by participants, (1= Disagree strongly, 2=Disagree, 3=Disagree a little, 4=Do not know, 5=Agree a little, 6=Agree, 7=Agree a lot). The leaders’ perceptions of participant achievement (‘y’ for achieved, ‘o’ for not achieved) were recorded alongside these numerical scores. Items on which the views of youth participants and adult leaders differed are highlighted below. Blue highlights on the figure below mark where the adult leader recorded the indicator as being achieved while the youth participant disagreed with the related statement; yellow highlights mark where

the youth participant agreed with the statement but the leader did not consider the indicator to be achieved.

Table 5.8: Youth / Leader perceptions at end of Summer Camp

Key: Youth indicators: 1-Disagree strongly, 2-Disagree, 3-Disagree a little, 4-Do not know, 5-Agree a little, 6-Agree, 7-Agree a lot

Adult mark: y – marked as achieved on GEF, o – not marked

Country	Participant	1a	1b	2a	2b	2c	2d	3a	3b	3c	3d	4a	4b
A	F1	7 y	6 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	6 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	5 o	7 y	7 y
	F2	7 y	6 y	6 y	5 y	7 y	6 y	7 y	6 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	6 y
	M1	6 y	6 y	6 y	5 y	4 o	6 y	7 y	5 o	5 o	5 y	6 y	6 y
	M2	7 y	7 y	6 y	6 y	6 y	6 y	6 y	6 y	5 y	7 y	7 y	5 y
B	M1	7 y	7 y	2 y	2 o	6 o	3 o	4 o	4 o	5 o	5 y	5 o	4 o
	M2	7 y	5 y	7 y	5 y	7 y	6 y	6 y	7 y	6 y	6 y	7 y	7 y
	F1	6 y	5 y	6 y	5 y	6 y	5 y	7 y	6 y	7 y	6 y	7 y	6 y
	F2	7 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	6 y	6 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	7 y
C	F1	7 y	6 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	6 y	7 y	7 y	7 y
	F2	7 y	5 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	6 y	7 y	7 y	6 y	7 y	7 y	6 y
	M1	7 y	5 y	7 y	1 y	7 y	6 o	6 o	5 y	6 o	6 y	5 y	6 y
	M2	7 y	7 y	7 y	2 y	7 y	6 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	6 y
D	F1	6 y	7 y	5 y	6 o	5 o	7 o	4 y	6 y	5 y	6 y	5 y	4 o
	F2	7 y	7 y	6 y	6 y	6 y	5 o	6 y	5 y	5 o	6 y	5 y	6 o
	M1	6 y	7 y	6 y	6 o	5 y	6 o	6 o	2 y	5 o	7 y	5 y	6 o
	M2	6 y	6 y	6 y	6 y	7 o	5 o	7 y	5 y	6 o	7 y	7 y	7 o
E	F1	7 y	7 y	6 y	6 y	7 y	6 o	7 y	?o	6 y	5 y	6 y	7 y
	F2	6 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	6 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	6 y	7 y	7 y
	M1	6 y	7 y	7 y	2 y	7 y	6 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	6 y	7 y	6 y
	M2	7 y	6 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	7 o	6 y	7 y	7 y	7 y
F	F1	6 y	7 y	6 y	6 y	7 y	6 y	6 y	7 y	6 y	5 y	6 y	7 y
	F2	7 y	6 y	7 y	6 y	6 y	4 y	5 y	6 y	6 y	7 y	6 y	6 y
	F3	6 y	6 y	6 y	? y	5 y	6 y	7 y	5 y	7 y	4 y	6 y	6 y
	M1	7 y	5 y	5 y	? y	? y	5 y	3 y	4 y	5 y	6 y	6 y	6 y
G	F1	6 y	5 y	5 y	5 y	6 y	5 o	6 o	5 y	6 y	5 y	6 y	5 o
	F2	6 y	5 y	5 y	6 o	6 o	6 o	5 o	6 o	6 o	6 o	7 y	6 o
	M1	6 y	6 y	7 y	6 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	6 y	5 y	5 y	6 y	6 y
	M2	7 y	7 y	6 y	3 y	6 o	6 o	6 o	6 o	6 o	7 o	7 y	6 y

Table 5.8: Youth / Leader perceptions at end of Summer Camp (continued)

Country	Participant	1a	1b	2a	2b	2c	2d	3a	3b	3c	3d	4a	4b
H	M1	7 y	7 y	6 y	6 y	5 y	5 y	6 y	6 o	5 y	7 y	6 y	5 y
	M2	6 y	5 y	6 y	3 y	6 y	7 o	6 y	5 o	5 y	4 y	6 y	3 y
	F1	6 y	7 y	5 y	4 y	5 o	5 o	5 o	4 o	4 o	5 y	4 y	4 y
	F2	7 y	7 y	6 y	6 y	5 o	6 o	6 o	5 o	6 o	7 y	6 y	6 y
J	M1	7 y	7 y	7 y	6 y	7 y	7 y	7 y	6 y 7 y	6 y	7 y	6 y	6 y
	M2	7 y	7 y	7 y	5 y	7 y	6 y	7 y	y	7 y	7 y	6 y	7 y
	F1	7 y	6 y	5 y	2 y	6 y	6 y	7 y	6 y	6 y	6 y	7 y	7 y
	F2	7 y	7 y	6 y	5 y	7 y	6 y	7 y	7 y	6 y	7 y	7 y	6 y

Indicator 2b / statement 4 relates to planning and conducting activities. Looking at the chart above, it seems that fewer participants regard themselves as agreeing with the statement than leaders who think they have achieved the indicator. However, it should be noted that the statement on the participant questionnaire had more specific wording than the indicator; it asked the participant if they used the phases of an experiential learning model, whereas the GEF indicator simply stated ‘Participate in planning and running activities’ without reference to the (implicit) planning model advocated in other CISV documents such as the *CISV Passport for Active Global Citizenship* (CISV International, 2009). It was noted earlier that the t-test results for this statement were not as strong as they were for other statements, suggesting some variation in participant views on achievement of the indicator.

The universal achievement of the first three indicators was explained in section 5.4.3, above. On indicators 2c, 2d, 3a, 3b, 3c, leaders suggested that six or more of the participants (12, or 33%, for indicator 2d) had not achieved the indicator whereas the participants themselves agreed with the statement of proficiency. These indicators (2c: *Contribute during group discussion*; 2d: *Suggest solutions and solve problems objectively*; 3b: *Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts*;

3c: *Express independent idea to promote group development*) are somewhat more clearly dependent on language knowledge than other indicators. Comments from the IEFs (Appendix 13) were consulted, where possible, to try to explain some of the inconsistencies noted here and are discussed in a further analysis of the comparison of youth perspectives of their learning and adult recording of youth achievement in the next chapter.

A comparison between the adult leader and youth participant perspectives on the participant achievement of goal indicators was shown in Table 5.8. It was noted that in the majority of cases there was agreement between the adult scoring of an indicator as having been achieved and the participant perspective of agreement with the statement of competence. Only 14 of the 432 combinations of scores (3.24%) were marked by the adult leaders as being achieved but not agreed by the participants; however 12.27% of these combinations of scores are highlighted to show where the participants felt they had made progress in agreeing with the PaRQ statement but the leaders felt they had not achieved the indicator. Interestingly, half of the incongruities in which leaders recorded youth participants as having achieved the indicator whereas the six participants themselves in noting their place on PaRQ disagreed with the corresponding statement related to indicator 2b, *Participate in planning and running activities*. In five of these cases there was no related comment on the IEF but in the sixth case the leader noted “Y[es]. Planning group, although he didn’t run any activity.” This prompts the suggestion that participants may have taken part in planning yet the leader may not have agreed with the statement because they felt that the participant had not been actively involved in conducting the activities planned by their group. It should be noted that due to their involvement in their own planning groups, with participants from several delegations, leaders would not be able to observe all members of their own delegation in planning. The only other indicator for which more than one participant disagreed with

the corresponding statement was 3b, *Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts*, although for one of these participants the leader just noted that the individual did not share with the whole camp. Her comments on other indicators for the same participant suggested difficulties in use of English so it may have been that his ‘sharing of personal feelings and thoughts’ took place with peers during delegation time.

For one third of the participants, leaders did not mark achievement of indicator 2d, *Suggest solutions and solve problems objectively*, although the youth participants agreed with the corresponding PaRQ statement. The rationale offered by two leaders on the IEF was that their participant did not have adequate skills in English to do this, although other leaders had noted that some members of their delegation had achieved this indicator in delegation time, so presumably did so in their home language. For nine participants (25%) leaders did not mark achievement of indicator 3c (*Express ideas to promote group development*) when participants agreed with the corresponding PaRQ statement. Again, the only leaders to suggest a reason for non-achievement stated that this was because of language difficulty or lack of English competence. If language competence was the only, or dominant, factor in leaders’ decisions on achievement of this indicator it might be expected that the same participants would all be recorded as not achieving indicator 2c, *Contribute during group discussion*, but it was only twice that a leader noted the same participant had not achieved both indicators 2c and 3c, thus suggesting that there were more factors than just language competence which affected the leaders’ decisions. It seems probable that the same argument would also apply to indicator 3b, *Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts*, also not achieved by seven participants, but again there was only partial correspondence. The skill-based indicator 3a, *Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders*, was not marked as achieved for six (17%) of the participants, with a comment about one

girl that she needed to be asked a direct question by a leader in order to make a contribution to planning and for another girl that she needed assistance when leading activities.

It was noticeable that most of the incidences of disagreement over achievement of goal indicators between adult leaders and youth participants were clustered in three delegations, countries D, G and H. The leader for country D felt that none of the participants in her delegation had achieved indicator 2d, *Suggest solutions and solve problems objectively*, “because of language problem”, that three of them had not been able to *Express independent ideas to promote group development* (indicator 3c) or *Help others feel included in the group* (indicator 4b). For one of her girls (F1) this leader also noted that she had not achieved indicator 2c, *Contribute during group discussion*, “because of not knowing English well”. However, the youth participants agreed with the relevant statements on their questionnaires and in the narrative spaces both girls and one of the boys suggested that they had improved their English. The leader of the delegation from Country G recorded one of her girls as achieving only four of the twelve indicators and one of her boys as achieving only six. In these cases the girl’s narrative comments suggest that she may have felt homesick for parts of the camp when she stated: “I don’t know why I can’t be real myself in here. I can’t always miss my home and friends all the time.” In contrast, the boy’s comments are somewhat flippant. In country H one boy and one girl appeared uncertain or disagreed slightly with three statements on their end of programme PaRQ but their leader felt they had achieved the corresponding indicators. However, she did not note achievement on eleven of the points which her delegation members marked as agreed, suggesting that her girls had difficulties with their use of English and that one of them was rather shy. In summary, the majority of points where youth participants agreed with statements of competence on their end of programme questionnaires but their leaders did not consider them to

have achieved the indicator concerned some aspect of language. It is suggested that the Summer Camp may have been a situation in which the youth participants felt that they were able to communicate adequately with other participants whereas their leaders felt that the participants were not using “correct” English, although this suggestion was not part of the research and, thus, would require further investigation.

All participants were recorded as achieving indicator 2a, *Receive training on how to plan and lead an activity, before and during the first days of camp*, following a training activity organised by the leaders at the beginning of the camp. Leaders suggested that three of the participants did not achieve indicator 2b, *Participate in planning and running activities*. No reason was given for failure to achieve this specific indicator but the leader of two such participants noted on other indicators that these two had some difficulties in using English so it is likely that their weaker language competence was a factor affecting their contribution to planning and running activities. Similarly, six participants were recorded as not achieving indicator 2c, *Contribute during group discussion*, and for these the leaders did specify their difficulty in use of English. This suggests that these leaders were only taking account of contributions to mixed groups or whole camp discussions for such participants and may not have considered their contributions to delegation meetings as being relevant to the goal indicator. Thirteen participants (36%) were not recorded as achieving indicator 2d, *Suggest solutions and solve problems objectively*. The leader of the delegation from country D did not check this indicator for any of her participants and leaders G and H ticked it for only one each, the latter citing language difficulties for the other members of her delegation. Again these leaders appear to be considering behaviour in mixed groups or whole camp discussions rather than behaviour in delegation meetings.

Summer Camp goal 3 was ‘Develop Self awareness’, with indicators 3a) *Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders*, 3b) *Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts*, 3c) *Express independent ideas to promote group development*, 3d) *Increase self confidence*. The first of these was achieved by 78% of participants but indicators 3b and 3c by only 72% (26), frequently in smaller groups such as during delegation time or planning group rather than in whole camp discussions. Observation of whole camp discussion suggested that this was not the most effective way of debriefing in this programme as it tended to be summarised in a ‘Fist of five’ (participants being asked to hold up one hand with the number of fingers shown to reflect their appreciation of the activity) rather than a productive discussion. When it happened, discussion in smaller groups enabled participants to take time to think about the meaning of the activity. Similarly, debriefing by writing notes on points specified by the activity leaders (fellow participants) could be used to focus attention on the intentions of the activity planning group. Indicator 3d, *Increase self confidence*, was achieved by 92% (33) of the participants and the leader for one of those not noted as *increasing* self confidence wrote “Didn’t increase, but she always had self confidence.” The other two participants who were not marked as achieving this indicator were in delegation H, where the leader recorded them as only achieving four (F2) or six (M2) indicators.

5.7 Chapter summary

This chapter has presented results of fieldwork observations, responses to adult and youth questionnaires and interviews with adult leaders, supplemented by some programme observations. These will be discussed further in the next chapter, where the purpose and value of the evaluation strategies used will also be discussed, as will their

potential for use in other CISV programmes or by other youth organisations, and limitations of this research project will be addressed.

Chapter 6

Discussion

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented results of research into the self-reported learning of participants in a CISV Summer Camp for 36 youth participants aged 14 / 15 using a scaled questionnaire, plus narrative spaces in which they could respond to open questions on the end of programme Predictive and Reflective Questionnaire (PaRQ). Each group of four participants, coming from nine different countries, was accompanied by an adult leader. Adult leaders organised activities for the first two days of the programme, after which most activities were planned by the youth participants, who had been allocated to five planning groups for this purpose. In addition to the participants' self-reporting of learning for the purpose of this study, the leaders had noted participant achievement of programme goal indicators on a Group Evaluation Form (GEF), as required by CISV International. In some cases these achievements were complemented by comments on Individual Evaluation Forms (IEF). The scores noted on the GEF had been compared with the youth participants' self-scores on their end of programme PaRQ. Leaders' comments on programme development and on the use of the GEF had been recorded in informal interviews. This chapter aims to discuss the findings described in the previous chapter and to consider how these findings can help to answer the research questions set out towards the end of Chapter 2. It will also discuss whether the strategy adopted in this research might be used in other CISV programmes or might be useful to other organisations, and will address some limitations of the research recounted in this thesis.

6.2 Learning in the Summer Camp

This section will look at participants' learning in the Summer Camp and the ways in which such learning may have contributed to the development of Intercultural Competence, taking into account the leader and participant perceptions of learning, as recorded on the GEF and IEF by leaders and reported on their PaRQ by participants. Some of the learning noted by participants in their narrative spaces will be included. Some possible explanations for the apparent negative changes in youth self perception will be introduced in a later section.

6.2.1 Intercultural competence and learning in the case study programme: programme goals and indicators

The educational goals of a CISV Summer Camp were written to articulate aspects of CISV's experiential learning model that would be achievable with young people aged 14 or 15 years within the three weeks of such a programme. They comprise a selection of attitudes, skills and knowledge which are designed to contribute to CISV's mission, "Creating active global citizens", and acquisition of which might enhance participants' intercultural communicative competence (ICC). It was noted in Chapter 1 that, when discussing intercultural communication, Zhu Hua (2014b) argues that the primary aims of intercultural communication are to understand members of different cultures and to be able to develop the skills and abilities to communicate with them. She suggests that intercultural communicative competence is generally perceived as "the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural encounters," (p. 115). The perspectives on communication taken by youth participants and by adult leaders in the Summer Camp proved to be interesting.

Fantini's (2000) definition of ICC, also discussed in chapter one, is focused on abilities in three areas:

- establish and maintain relationships;
- communicate with minimal loss or distortion;
- collaborate in order to accomplish something of mutual interest or need. (p. 2)

Fantini (ibid) also identifies awareness as a central component of learning, in addition to the more familiar aspects of knowledge, skills and attitudes. For CISV Summer Camp participants, etic and emic forms of awareness were made explicit in two of the four programme goals, Goal 1: Develop intercultural awareness, and, Goal 3: Develop self awareness. Goal 3 also includes indicators that relate to building and maintaining positive relationships with other participants. Goals 2 and 4, Develop leadership skills, and, Develop cooperative skills, respectively, include indicators related to both communication and collaboration. It could then be argued that in achieving the indicators of Summer Camp goals participants would further develop their ICC.

In the case study programme, the universal achievement of indicators for Goal 1 (1a: Share own culture with the Camp; 1b: Learn about at least two other cultures through different activities) might be seen primarily as knowledge transfer although given as indicators for 'Develop intercultural *awareness*'. However, the cultural activities observed and described in Chapter 5 (Country J - work on the need for critical appraisal of advertising; Country H - work on corruption in public service; Country D - work on the history of their own nation) were designed to create awareness of specific attributes of the home localities or nations concerned. They were also designed to, potentially, create awareness in participants of how these factors might influence their own lives as well as those of the delegations making the presentations or organising the relevant activities. Having been planned and implemented by delegation members,

these national cultural activities constituted a form of peer learning. According to Siebel (2013), peer learning provides opportunities for:

- self-reflection and critical consideration of own points of view and truths;
- getting to know and admit other possibilities and approaches;
- transfer between one's own reality and the reality of others. (p. 9)

In learning about problems of corruption in country H or the problems posed by advertising strategies used in country J, participants were encouraged to reflect on their own home situations, and compare these with the situation in other countries represented in the Summer Camp. This helped them to appreciate the difference in reality of life for their peers.

Skills identified as indicators for Summer Camp Goal 2 and Goal 3, such as: 2b) Participate in planning and running activities; 2c) Contribute during group discussions; 3a) Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders; 3c) Express independent ideas to promote group development, were developed through the structure and organisation of the Summer Camp. Youth participation in planning groups to develop and coordinate activities within the programme was the setting both for development of these skills and for leaders to observe their achievement (or non-achievement). The outcome of such group work was seen in the achievement of indicator 2b (recorded as achieved for 90% of the participants) and, 2c, 3a and 3c (recorded as achieved for around three quarters of the participants). Working together in planning and conducting activities for other participants, developing the skills needed to do this effectively, offered experiences of peer learning. Such learning might demonstrate Siebel's (2013) claim that "By means of comparative, mutual learning processes it is possible to recognise alternative forms of practice and these may provide innovative stimuli for improving one's own practice, i.e. a pragmatic value." (p. 2)

Both in planning groups and in many of the activities themselves, such as those outlined

in Chapter 4, there were opportunities to “negotiate meaning, create understanding and repair misunderstanding” in the “co-construction of meaning,” (Spencer-Oatey and Franklin, 2009, p. 55). The dialogue necessary for this also created opportunities to appreciate that one’s original point of view may not be the only valid one, thus generating what Bredella (2003) or Dooly (2011) refer to as a “third position” or “third space”. It was apparent, also, that work in planning groups constituted practice of establishing relationships, communicating with peers and group cooperation towards a common goal identified in Fantini’s model (noted above) as elements of ICC. The nature of this learning will be discussed in the next section.

6.2.2 Experiential, non-formal and informal learning

Learning related to both other cultures and to work in planning groups was evident in some of the comments written in narrative spaces, such as:

- I learned more tolerance for other cultures. Also, I learned about planning. (Country B, M1)
- I learned that if I change environment and if I’m not with familiar people which don’t speak my language, my character changes. . . but day by day I became more confident about myself and about the English language. (Country G, F2)
- Respect other people’s ideas. Learned to hear others opinions that are different to mine. (Country C, F2)

The involvement of youth participants in working to create activities for their peers and in taking part in activities planned by others could be seen to constitute forms of experiential learning, (Kolb, 1984). The participants were both learning through the practicalities of designing and organising activities and, also, through the experience of taking part in activities and simulations planned by members of other groups. This learning was planned to develop the knowledge and skills for effective communication and cooperation, outlined above, and also to address those goal indicators that had

clearer elements of attitude development, such as 3b) Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts; and, 4b) Help others to feel included in the group.

Arguing for a positive youth policy in Europe, Eigeman (2013) suggests that youth should have equal opportunity to adults in community involvement. The capacity of young people to engage in this way was demonstrated in the use of democratic processes needed for effective conduct of Camp Meetings. Co-ordinated by the youth participants, with equal status accorded to all, whether youth participant, adult leader or staff member, and with a cooperative ethos, shared goals, and organisational support, these meetings were observed to conform to the conditions advocated for positive group development by Allport (1954) in his suggested “Contact Hypothesis”. Eigeman (ibid) argues, “There is a need for positive contributions to society. Taking part is indeed taking part as citizens.” Camp meetings were seen to be effective in allowing the youth participants to be active in self-governance, both contributing to organisation of their own social group and learning from the experience of doing so.

In chapter 1 it was noted that Kemmis (2007) described education (distinct from formal ‘schooling’) as “developing the knowledge, values and capacities of individuals and their capacities for self-expression, self-development, and self-determination,” (p. 11). It was argued that education on this basis would be instrumental in making young people aware of how they could contribute to a just and fair society. The opportunities for non-formal learning provided in this Summer Camp would seem to align with this description of education. Developing knowledge of selected aspects of different countries and their cultures, providing opportunities for participants to explore their values and to develop their self expression and decision making abilities could be

seen to be closely linked to this definition of education given by Kemmis (ibid) and reiterated above.

In addition to the planned activities in the Summer Camp, the experience of living as a community for three weeks provided opportunities for informal learning. It was noted in Chapter 1 that Rogers (2004) discusses ‘informal learning’ as learning that takes place outside formal education structures. He argues for a continuum of educational styles rather than rigid categories of formal / non-formal / informal education. In this residential setting the organisational emphasis may have been on the non-formal educational activities but ‘free time’, meal times, sharing domestic duties, etc., all offered opportunities for informal exchange and learning about how others behave in similar circumstances. One leader (Country F) remarked in her interview that a boy in her delegation had been “teaching” some of his language to other participants. Such language teaching is not formal education, nor is it organised non-formal education, as it occurred in an informal setting, yet it was not completely informal in the sense of “acquisition by observation and participation” as it, apparently, did involve a form of deliberate “teaching”. In this situation Rogers’ (ibid) suggestion of a continuum of educational styles, rather than fixed categories, would seem to be useful.

6.2.3 Youth perceptions of learning recorded in narrative spaces

The use of open questions to elicit the youth participant opinions on their own learning, and on their learning about themselves, was planned to add an open space for personal reflection in order that they could give more qualitative information than would be derived just from the use of the PaRQ scaled questions. Analysis of the comments written in these spaces, reported in the previous chapter, for example, “In this camp I learned listening to other people, respecting different cultures, how to plan and

organise activities” (country D, F2) (see also appendix 11), showed that half the number of participants specifically identified learning about other countries or cultures, reflecting the results on the indicators for programme goal one. This might be seen to support Starkey’s (2003) argument (and the belief of CISV’s founder, Dr Doris T Allen) that personal contact can be a powerful factor in creating openness towards other cultures.

When writing comments on things they learned about themselves 15 (42%) of the participants offered personal reflections such as: “. . . I feel like I have a better perception of who I am, what others see in me and what role I take in certain situations,” (Country A, F1). While some of the comments made in these narrative spaces might possibly have been prompted by ideas from the statements used on the PaRQ, such personal reflections, such as the last comment, demonstrate a different level of self-awareness. Such self-awareness, according to Fantini (2005) might be cultivated in intercultural settings “through developments in knowledge, positive attitudes, and skills. . . .” (p. 2) Fantini (ibid) subsequently posits that the awareness generated can stimulate development of further knowledge, attitudes and skills in a cyclic fashion.

In answers to both of the open questions, that is in participants’ perceptions of “learning” and of “learning about myself”, ideas related to communication occurred as the second most common comment, noted by almost 40% of the participants. These were sometimes linked to other attributes, for example the girl who wrote about learning “To work in groups better and to contribute in discussions,” (Country E, F1), or the girl who wrote “In this camp I learned listening to other people, respecting different cultures,” (Country D, F2). On other forms comments made by individual participants in relation to communication reflected his / her desire to be able to use English more effectively, for example, the boy who stated in the space for learning about himself:

“Realise that my English standard is not enough. I need to learn how to start a conversation,” (Country G, M1). While group work and contributing to discussions were suggested in the Summer Camp goal indicators, proficiency in English was not a specific programme aim (although English was used as a *lingua franca*). However, reflection, such as the example above, on his / her English competence may indicate an individual participant’s concern to become a more fully integrated member of the total (English speaking) group culture of the Summer Camp.

6.3 How can we account for apparent negative changes in youth self perception?

It was noted above (Section 5.3.2) that 14% of youth participant final scores on PaRQ were higher than the participants originally anticipated and 41% were lower than initially anticipated. This latter percentage is only marginally smaller than the 43% of final scores in which youth participants agreed with their initial forecast. Also, 6.5% of self-scores at the end of the programme were below where the participant had placed him / herself at the beginning of the programme and 53% of scores for where they **felt** they had been at the beginning were lower than the point at which they had initially placed themselves, but this often contrasts with what they wrote in the narrative spaces as illustrated in Figure 5.18, PaRQ Scores Example 3.

It has been suggested that learning during the Summer Camp programme helped participants to become more aware of their own abilities in relation to those of others around them and thus to place themselves more accurately in relation to other participants. Or, as stated by Kruger and Dunning (1999), “. . . improving the skills of participants, and thus increasing their metacognitive competence, helped them recognise the limitations of their abilities.” (p. 1121) In the intercultural sphere, Bennett (2009) suggested that “people tend to overestimate their intercultural sensitivity,” (p. 7),

although he argued that they may reduce this over-estimation as they move their score towards a more ethnorelative perspective, as measured against his Developmental Inventory of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS). Similarly, Jackson (2009) reported that at entry to a short term intercultural experience, comparing their actual and perceived scores on the IDI, members of a group of students “. . . possessed inflated opinions about the level of their own intercultural sensitivity,” (p. 65). Jackson found that even at the end of this five week immersion experience the students rated themselves further towards the ethnorelative end of the IDI scale than their scores suggested, but the discrepancy was reduced in comparison with their scores at the beginning of the programme.

Commenting on intercultural learning of younger participants, Zhu Hua, Jiang Yan & Watson (2011) reported that six of the twelve children in a study of CISV Village participants, aged 11 years, rated themselves lower in post-post-programme questionnaires designed to explore their intercultural competence than they had done at a pre-programme date. In a study of participants in locally organised American summer camps, some only one week long, Thurber et al (2007) had similar findings with regard to learning about communication and cooperation, for which they coined the term *recalibration* of self perception. These studies of informal / non-formal, short term learning, in a similar way to the current research, suggest a possible change in awareness of what is needed to be proficient in various aspects of self-reported competences. Such a change in awareness could result in a participant giving him / herself a relatively lower reflective score, having developed a more thorough, personal understanding of the indicator requirements.

In the current project participants had the opportunity to identify for themselves what they felt was their most important learning in the programme by providing written

comment in the narrative spaces. These comments, examples of which were identified in the previous chapter (see also appendix 11), often corresponded with the way in which they stated their final and reflective score. This might suggest an awareness of their own learning during the programme that could have influenced the broader perspective against which they noted a reflective score lower than their initial self-scored placement.

This method of recording self-scores gives a somewhat different impression of the individual's learning than if they had simply recorded their self-placement at the beginning of the programme and again at the end of the programme on repeated use of the same questionnaire. As just noted, it might be suggested that their learning during the programme changed their awareness on various goal indicators so that they had a different perspective on their own proficiency at the end of the programme than at the beginning, which consequently affected their perception of where they should have, initially, placed themselves. This echoes the suggestion made by Kruger and Dunning (1999) when they argued that "the incompetent are less able than their more experienced peers to gauge their own level of competence," (p. 1122). Kruger and Dunning (ibid) investigated this idea in a series of four studies, working with volunteer undergraduate subjects to assess their competence in recognition of humour, logical reasoning and English grammar. The use of a deliberately reflective strategy in the project at the core of this thesis has facilitated exploration of this idea. By noting the youth participants' self-scoring at the beginning of their programme when, it is assumed, they were less competent and then noting scores at the end of the programme when, presumably, they had acquired some greater competence, it is suggested that the pattern of their learning is more clearly revealed. This strategy for evaluating learning in non-formal education might provide further evidence for the paradox suggested by

Kruger and Dunning (ibid) when they argued that, “the way to make incompetent individuals realize their own incompetence is to make them competent,” (p. 1128).

6.4 Use of the Programme Director’s Planning and Evaluation Form (PDPEF)

The Group Evaluation Form (GEF) section of the Programme Director’s Planning and Evaluation Form (PDPEF) was designed to facilitate monitoring of programme progress in order for staff and leaders to ensure that participants would have opportunities to develop all of the goal indicators specified for the programme. Its use was intrinsic to research question 2.3: *How did the use of evidence from the achievement / non-achievement of goals and indicators impact on programme planning?* Discrepancy between the intended and perceived use of this form had also been indicated in earlier research (Watson, 2012). Further exploration of this would be useful to CISV and might have implications for the wider use of such a strategy.

6.4.1 Adult expectations of youth learning

At the beginning of the Summer Camp the adult leaders had completed a questionnaire on which they were asked to indicate how many members of their delegation they felt had already achieved each indicator and how many they anticipated achieving it by the end of the programme. These indications were compared with the achievement of participants as recorded on the Group Evaluation Form (GEF). The totalled results of this process for the whole leader group are shown in the previous chapter, Figure 5.22. The data for delegation performance on each indicator is given in appendix 12. Comparing the leaders’ records of the number of their delegation members who had achieved indicators prior to the programme with the number they recorded as having achieved these indicators at the end of the programme (red versus

blue bars on Figure 5.22) gives an overview of the learning recorded by leaders. For most indicators the actual percentage of participants achieving the indicator is greater than the forecast but it is also noted that fewer participants were recorded as achieving four of the indicators than forecast by the leader group. Numbers represented by these percentages were quite small (two to four), but these indicators, (2c, Contribute during group discussions; 3b, Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts; 3c, Express independent ideas to promote group development; 4b, Help others feel included in the group) shared an element of benefitting from English language competence. It is noted that the relatively inexperienced leader from country G recorded fewer of her participants as achieving each of these indicators than she had forecast, so differences between expectations and outcome for one delegation might account for a good proportion of the total variation. Individual variation in the standard of performance expected by each leader for achievement of goal indicators has been noted as a potential problem in completion of the GEF (correspondence from International Village Committee, January 2014). Similar problems of standardisation are suggested in Wolf's (2001) discussion of the use of competence based assessment in vocational training.

6.4.2 Using the PDPEF to compare youth and adult perspectives on learning

A comparison of the youth participant scores of their attainment at the end of the Summer Camp and the opinion of leaders was given in the previous chapter (table 5.8). This showed that in most cases there was agreement between youth participants and adult leaders over the achievement of indicators. On 14 of the possible 432 combinations (3.2%) leaders scored the youth participants as having achieved the indicator while the youth participants placed themselves on the 'don't know' (six, 1.4%)

or ‘disagree’ (eight, 1.8%) points of the scaled scores. The majority of these discrepancies were scattered throughout the table although two participants from country H each had two such scores. For one of these (indicator 2b, Participate in planning and running activities) the leader had noted on the participant’s Individual Evaluation Form (IEF) that the indicator was achieved but that this female participant was still very shy. This suggests a potential lack of confidence which might account for this girl’s disagreement with two indicators. For the other participant who twice disagreed with a statement on which his leader felt he had achieved the indicator, the leader also made positive comments on his IEF. It is noted that his responses appear rather inconsistent in that he disagreed with the statement related to indicator 2b, that he could participate in planning and running activities, but agreed that he could both contribute during group discussions (indicator 2c) and help to lead the programme without assistance from leaders (indicator 3c).

The comparison of leader evaluations of competence and youth participant scores also revealed 54 cases (12.5% of scores) where the leader did not regard competence as being achieved while the youth participant gave him / herself a score on one of the ‘agree’ points of the scale. The majority of these disagreements (43, 10.4%) were for participants from countries D (15, 3.5%), G (17, 3.9%) and H (11, 2.5%), the latter two of which had leaders who did not have previous CISV leadership experience. It was noted earlier that most of these points of disagreement related to indicators where use of oral language (English) appeared to be a strong component. For example, indicator 2d / questionnaire statement 6, *Suggest solutions and solve problems objectively*, was not marked as achieved for 11 participants (31%) by their leaders, although the participants themselves were more positive in their agreement with the statement. The leader of delegation H had noted against the relevant indicators on IEFs “Problem with English”, so it was posited that the youth participants felt they were able

to communicate adequately in this respect whereas the leaders may have been judging their use of English in terms of accuracy. However, the focus of disagreement between youth participant self-score and leaders' marking achievement in these three delegations poses the question as to whether these participants actually were less competent or were these leaders judging their delegation members in a different way than that used by other leaders, (a difficulty similar to those noted by Wolf (2001) in her discussion of competence based evaluation). In that the Camp Director was responsible for transferring scores from the GEF wall chart to the on-line form, she had the opportunity to change scores with which she disagreed. It is, therefore, assumed that the Camp Director, in her moderating role, agreed with the leaders' opinions regarding participant achievement of goals and indicators. The focus of this discussion has been on *disagreement* between leaders and their delegation members. It is noted that in the case of Country B, M1, (a boy who had difficulty relating to other participants) leader and participant were in agreement about the non-achievement of the majority of indicators just as, in the majority of scores, youth participant self-scores on the PaRQ and adult leaders' scoring on the GEF were in agreement in suggesting improvement.

6.4.3 Use of the PDPEF in programme development

The purpose of the innovative Programme Director's Planning and Evaluation Form (PDPEF) was described in the discussion of pedagogical development of CISV, in Chapter 2, section 2.3.6. This form is designed to incorporate planning and on-going evaluation of the programme in one document. It is proposed that, in an ideal setting, the Group Evaluation Form (GEF) section of the PDPEF would be used to monitor the progress of the programme by noting participant achievement of goal indicators throughout the programme and, thus, identifying areas of learning that needed further

emphasis in order to develop work towards all goals. It was also noted in Chapter 4, section 4.4.1, that this use of the GEF to facilitate planning was not discussed during the leader training weekend, although it is emphasised in the on-line guidance notes for use of the PDPEF. Review of the wall chart three days before the end of the programme indicated that it had not been completed during the programme as most sections of the matrix were still blank. Discussion with leaders in informal interviews provided a range of views on the use of the GEF, five of the nine suggesting that completion (in theory) could provide some indication of programme progress. However, seven of the leaders suggested that they perceived it to be most useful for monitoring the progress of their own delegation members. Four of the leaders suggested that they would have liked to have a specific time each day allocated to discussing progress of individual participants or looking at the GEF. None of the leaders were aware of the on-line guidance notes. Submission of a completed PDPEF to CISV International Office at the end of a programme is an obligation of the Host Staff, usually a responsibility undertaken by the Programme Director, so it might be suggested that the motivation is simply to complete the GEF as an essential component of the total reporting form rather than to use it as a monitoring tool throughout the programme. Summer Camps had been organised in CISV for twenty years prior to the introduction of the PDPEF. It is recognised that many members of staff or Summer Camp leaders had taken similar roles before the introduction of the form, with new leaders working alongside them. This suggests that learning for new leaders may be a form of “peripheral participation” through which they became incorporated into the “community of practice” of CISV Summer Camp leaders (Lave and Wenger, 1991). Such learning among the staff / leader group tends to perpetuate existing practice into which the incorporation and effective use of a new tool, such as the PDPEF, may take some time.

In the earlier discussion of the process of innovation in education (Chapter 1, section 1.3) six descriptive factors outlined by Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin and Hall (1987) were noted. In incorporating the effective use of the PDPEF into CISV programmes it might be useful to re-iterate their suggestion that change is a lengthy process rather than a single event. The introduction of the PDPEF may have been an “event” in this context, but, as Hord et al (ibid) posit, the personal aspects of change and its adoption by individuals needs to be nurtured in order for it to be effectively adopted. Their suggestion that “addressing the implications (practical and emotional) of a specific change for those involved will help participants to understand what is involved and how they can adapt their practice accordingly,” (p. 15) might have implications for training of adult leaders and programme staff in the use of the PDPEF as an aid to effective programme planning or monitoring of programme progress as well as for reporting of outputs. Such training would need to recognise that a high proportion of CISV leaders and staff members have no other experience of non-formal education so would need to learn how this form could be used to help in their programme planning.

6.5 Goals and outcomes of the case study CISV programme

The discussion above has considered findings from the case study at the heart of this research. The following sections will summarise and discuss the findings as they might address the research questions set out in chapter 2. These sections are set out in paragraphs which attempt to address each sub question.

6.5.1. Youth participant perceptions of the goals and outcomes of their programme

Question 1: How did the youth participants perceive the goals and outcomes of their programme?

1.1 How did the youth participants evaluate their own achievements?

- 1.2 Were the youth perceptions of their own development in line with their expectations?
- 1.3 What did the youth participants report in the narrative spaces as the principal outcomes of their programme participation?

Charts showing the youth participant scores at the beginning and end of the programme on each of the twelve programme indicators were presented in section 5.2, above. These demonstrate a general shift in self-reported position towards a more positive agreement with each of the statements derived from the goal indicators. It is, thus, argued that the youth participants saw themselves as learning about the aspects of ICC identified in these indicators through their programme experiences. It might then be concluded that the participants had a generally positive view of their achievements.

It was noted earlier that the alignment of youth participant predicted scores and self-scores at the end of the programme presented a more complex situation, with 41% of the final scores at a lower point than the participant had predicted they would reach and a small number (6.5%) actually below where individuals had placed him / herself at the beginning of the programme. The finding that just over half of the scores for where participants, on reflection, **felt** they had been at the beginning of the summer camp were lower than the point at which they had initially placed themselves was discussed in section 6.3, above. This was related to the suggestion made by Kruger and Dunning (1999), that increased competence can make a participant more aware of his / her previous limitations.

Comparison of the participant comments with the goals of Summer Camp, and their respective indicators, proved interesting. Goal 1 was 'Develop intercultural awareness' and it was noted earlier that 50% of the participants mentioned cultures or other countries in their personal reports of learning. Such comments included:

- . . . I learned a lot of things about different cultures that sometimes I'd never even heard of. (Country A, F1)
- I learned lots of wonderful cultures. (Country A, F2)
- I learned more tolerance for other cultures. (Country B, M2)
- I learned more of the culture of the other countries. (Country H, F2)
- I found many things about different countries (country J, M1)

The two indicators for this goal, “Share own culture with the camp,” and “Learn about at least two other cultures through different activities,” were achieved by all participants, presumably because each delegation organised a “cultural activity” (an activity related to life in their home country) for other participants.

Goal 2, *Develop leadership skills*, was mentioned by fewer than 25% of participants although “teamwork” or “working together” was mentioned somewhat more frequently. Examples of direct reference to leadership included:

- How to lead with success. (Country A, M2)
- In this camp I learned many things but the most important one was to be a productive leader. (Country B, F2)

References to teamwork included:

- Teamwork is REALLY IMPORTANT (Country G, F1)

However, the first indicator for this goal (2a: *Receive training on how to plan and lead an activity, before and during the first days of camp*) was achieved by all participants as the Host Staff had organised an activity about planning for leaders during their preparation days which leaders repeated for the youth participants on their first full day. Indicator 2b, *Participate in planning and running activities*, was marked by leaders as achieved by 89% of participants although 21% of the participants themselves disagreed with the statement “I can use the ‘Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply’ model to plan and run activities.” It was unusual to find that leaders suggested that a higher proportion of the youth participants had achieved an indicator than the proportion of the participants who, themselves, thought it had been achieved. The discrepancy here may be due to the

statement on the youth questionnaire being more focused on the model for planning and running activities described in CISV documents (*Passport* and *Big Ed*) than is actually apparent in the phrasing of the indicator.

There was a somewhat different pattern of scores for Indicator 2c, *Contribute during group discussion*, where almost all participants were positive in their opinion of their competence (only one boy scoring himself as ‘Don’t know’), while leaders suggested that six participants (17%) had not achieved this indicator. More clearly, indicator 2d, *Suggest solutions and solve problems objectively*, had one of the lowest achievement rates, as scored by leaders, at 64%. Despite this relatively low rate of achievement, several participants made comments related to the goal indicator, such as:

- [I learned] how to react in complicated situations.
- Every conflict has a resolution, to find one both parts agree with is the difficult part.
- A problem is just a problem that [sic] you can resolve it.

Goal three, *Develop self awareness*, overlapped some of the other goals or indicators. Acquisition of self awareness would seem to be valuable for completion of the PaRQ and particularly for written comments in the narrative spaces on the end of programme questionnaires. Indicator 3a, *Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders*, achieved by 81% of participants, might be seen to relate closely to indicators 2a and 2b while indicators 3b and 3c (*Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts; Express independent ideas to promote group development*), each achieved by 72% of participants, might be thought to overlap with indicators 2c and 2d. The most distinctive indicator in Goal three was 3d, *Increase self confidence*, achieved by 92% of participants and noted by several of them in the narrative spaces where s/he reported on learning about her / himself, for example:

- I am definitely more confident in what I do. (Country H, F2)
- I have more confidence in myself than I first thought I did. (Country E, F1)
- . . . day by day I become more confident about myself and about the English language. (Country F, F3)

The final goal for the Summer Camp programme focussed on the development of cooperative skills, with indicators 4a, *Work together as a team in planning and leading activities*, and 4b, *Help others feel included in the group*. The work in planning groups was highlighted in narrative spaces by several participants, for example:

- How to plan and organise activities (Country D, F2)
- I have also learned how to plan activities better . . . (Country J, M2)
- Planning skills were enhanced (Country G, M2)

The youth participant self-report in narrative spaces, discussed above, particularly suggested learning in aspects of cultural knowledge and awareness, communicative skills, and ability to interact in planning groups (working together towards a common goal). These might be seen as aspects of knowledge and skills, supported by positive attitudes, which could contribute to the development of intercultural competence as suggested in Fantini's (2002) model. The youth participants' ability to reflect and report their individual views on their own learning was also shown to be useful by Jiang Yan (2010) when, discussing work with CISV Village participants, aged 11 to 12 years, she claimed that although quantitative measures had been useful: ". . . probing measures (open questions) seem to provide more information about the young participants' changes or development in aspects of ICC," (ibid, p. 206). She continued by suggesting that for the group of young people with whom she worked, ". . . the qualitative measures or methods seem to be more reliable and effective in capturing the longitudinal development of ICC than the quantitative ones." It is suggested here that while the PaRQ reflective technique was useful in evaluating participant achievement of the goal indicators and the changes in youth participant perceptions of competence on the various indicators of specific aspects of ICC which these indicators identified, the

use of narrative spaces provided opportunity for personal reflection and consideration of those aspects of learning which were important to each participant at the end of the programme. It was noted earlier that, in discussing ICC, Fantini (2000) suggests that awareness influences the development of attitudes, skills and knowledge and that these, in turn, promote greater awareness. In a similar fashion, it is noted here that their comments in narrative spaces appeared to have importance for the individual participants. It is posited that these comments reflect learning that is likely to influence future development, as in the cyclic learning model proposed by Fantini (ibid).

Having considered some of the youth participant responses both on the PaRQ Likert scale and in their narrative spaces, adult leaders' perceptions of the youth participant achievement of the programme indicators will be reviewed under research question two before moving on to further consider if the youth and adult perceptions were in agreement.

6.5.2 Adult leaders' perceptions of the goals and outcomes of the programme

Question 2: How did the adult leaders perceive the goals and outcomes of the programme?

- 2.1 What were the adult expectations of youth participant learning?
- 2.2 How did the adult leaders perceive the youth participants' achievement of programme goals and indicators?
- 2.3 How did the use of evidence from the achievement / non-achievement of goals and indicators impact on programme planning?

The consolidated predictions of youth participant scores made by the adult leaders at the beginning of the programme were noted in section 5.4.1. A summary table at the end of that section indicates that three or four members of a delegation achieved an indicator on 82% of the possible combinations against the prediction that 80% would be

achieved by three or four participants. However, the prediction that in a quarter of cases three participants would reach the indicator and in only just over half the cases would all four members of the delegation reach it was exceeded in that two thirds of the indicators were completed by all participants and 16% of them by three members of a delegation. As predictions of achievement by three or four members of each delegation had been quite high, leaders' predictions of zero, one or two members of their delegation achieving the indicators were relatively low (6%, 2% and 13%, respectively) with comparably low levels of final achievement (3%, 6%, 10% respectively). It was noted in section 5.4.1 that these consolidated scores concealed individual differences between the ways in which scores for each indicator had been predicted. Charts to show the number of participants in each delegation believed to have already achieved each indicator at the beginning of the programme, the number predicted to achieve each indicator by the end of the programme and the final number recorded on the GEF are given in appendix 12. Whilst the majority of the predictions were fulfilled, it is not possible to fully account for discrepancies between prediction and fulfilment. Several reasons for such discrepancies could be suggested, including: forecasts may have been too optimistic or rather pessimistic, youth participants may have exceeded or may not have lived up to expectations, leaders may not have had relevant experience in dealing with such projections so may have found this challenging, or participants might have experienced unexpected difficulties.

Adult leader perceptions of youth learning were recorded in brief comments on the IEF as well as the youth participant achievement being noted on the GEF, although leaders sometimes did not write any comment on the IEF when the indicator was not achieved. These comments are shown in appendix 13. Although brief, they may indicate how each leader felt about the achievement of his / her delegation members and some of these comments were useful in the earlier discussion of results. Progress of the

camp as a whole and of their delegation members in general was also mentioned by leaders in some interviews, but individual participants were not generally discussed in these as the focus of interviews was on programme development, planning and evaluation, including use of the PDPEF / GEF rather than discussion of participant progress.

It was noted in section 6.5 that the PDPEF Group Evaluation Form was used to note youth participant achievement of goal indicators, as this was the main perception of its purpose by leaders. As it was completed at the end of the programme rather than used as an on-going record to monitor programme development the “planning” purpose of the form was not evident in this case study programme.

6.5.3 Levels of agreement between adult leader and youth participant evaluations.

Question 3: Did adult leaders and youth participant evaluations of learning agree?

- 3.1 Did the self-perceptions of their achievement by youth participants align with perceptions of their leaders?
- 3.2 Were there specific areas of disagreement between youth scores and leaders’ scores?

It was noted in section 6.4.2, above, that in the majority of cases (84%) the adult scoring of youth achievement of goal indicators and the participant perceptions of their placement on the corresponding statement of the Likert scale questionnaire were in agreement. Comments from the IEF were used to explain some of the discrepancies in scores, several of which included elements of participant competence in English used as a *lingua franca*. In these cases the youth participants had scored themselves as agreeing that they could communicate effectively whereas their leader felt they had not achieved the specific indicators. It is posited that the clustering of such disagreement on indicators which seemed to have a strong language component suggests that the

individual youth participants and their leaders may have had differing levels of expectation with regard to the use of English in the context of the specific indicators or their related questionnaire statements. In other words, they had differing perspectives of their personal communicative competence.

It was also noted earlier that most of the cases of disagreement between youth participant perceptions of their competence and the leaders' scores of indicator achievement were focussed in three delegations, (delegations D, G, and H). For leaders G and H this was their first CISV role so it is possible that their expectations may have differed from other leaders in that they were still working through "peripheral participation" (Lave and Wenger, 1991). However, leaders had been advised at the beginning of the summer camp that any one of them could score achievement of goal indicators on the GEF so it might be suggested that members of the leadership group, as a "community of practice" (ibid), shared perspectives on the (non) achievements of specific participants in these three delegations.

6.6 Potential use of a PaRQ strategy in other contexts

The **P**redictive and **R**eflective **Q**uestionnaire (PaRQ) used in this project was based on the goal indicators specified for the CISV Summer Camp programme in 2011. Statements for use as questionnaire items were derived from the goal indicators and participants marked their current position on a Likert scale along with a predicted score (at the beginning) or reflective score (at the end). The goal indicators were written in English, the language used for administrative purposes in CISV international. Statements for the PaRQ were also written in English as this was the *lingua franca* for the Summer Camp programme. In this respect, unless it proves possible to make accurate translations, the use of a PaRQ is dependent on the participants having

sufficient knowledge of the *lingua franca* to understand the statements, or on them having adequate language support in order to be able to respond appropriately. The option to use a home language in writing in narrative spaces was offered in the data collection for this project as it was appreciated that writing about personal learning might have been more comfortable in a participant's home language than in English. Given this suggested need for competence in a *lingua franca*, it might be difficult to use a PaRQ with participants in a CISV Village for children aged 11 years as they are not expected to use a common language. However, in programmes for older participants where English is normally used as the *lingua franca*, for example Step-Up (successor to Summer Camp), for ages 14 or 15 years, and Seminar Camps, for age 17 to 18 years, PaRQ may be more practical. One further factor, that must be taken into account in interpreting questionnaire responses or narrative responses made in any educational setting, is the possible motivation of young people to write what they think the adults expect them to record. Despite reassurance that data would be anonymous and that they should give their own opinion this effect, which may be unconscious, cannot be eliminated. However, it might be suggested that, given the search for their own identity common among teenagers, young people at the age of 14 or 15 are more likely to be candid than are younger respondents.

6.7 Use of the PaRQ for participant or programme evaluation

The use of a PaRQ would seem to have two principal advantages, initially that it can draw the attention of participants to the objectives of the programme in which they are to participate, and at the end of the programme it provides a means of demonstrating self-perceived learning of the programme participant. It was suggested earlier that this may be more accurate than simply marking current position on the same scale in a

repeated use of the same questionnaire, and suggested that growing competence might enable participants to appreciate their previous lack of knowledge and thus adjust their perspective on their initial position (following ideas posited by Kruger and Dunning, 1999). The challenges in use of a PaRQ strategy are twofold. First, the creation of questionnaire statements which accurately reflect the objectives or goal indicators of the programme and are sufficiently straight forward for use by youth participants who may have a fairly basic language proficiency; secondly, the interpretation of scores for use in demonstrating learning of individual participants and the effectiveness of programme provision. The first of these challenges could be met by careful consideration of the wording of items and consultation with colleagues from other language backgrounds, plus trialling of questionnaire items with groups of youth members. The second challenge leads to a further series of questions regarding the purpose for use of the PaRQ process as an evaluation of learning in CISV or in other programmes of non-formal education, including:

- Would results be used to help the individual participants to reflect further on their learning?
- Would results be used to assess the effectiveness of the specific educational programme?
- Would results of all similar programmes be consolidated to evaluate the wider / global impact of the type of programme?

If results were to be used to help the individual participants to further reflect on their learning, it might be valuable to use the PaRQ as a formative tool towards the end of the second week of a three-week programme so that each participant has opportunity to act on the interpretation of her / his developing scores. However, a more pertinent question concerns who would deal with the scoring and interpretation. To be able to use this as an effective learning strategy in an egalitarian, non-formal, learning situation

would require personnel trained both in comparing and interpreting the scores and in appropriately discussing these with individual participants to support their further development.

Use of the results to evaluate the effectiveness of individual programmes or their consolidation with results from similar programmes to demonstrate overall programme outcomes could be done off site, as with the collation of results from the current Programme Director's Planning and Evaluation Form (PDPEF) used in CISV. Such collation of results would require development of a standard protocol for interpretation of scores and might require purpose-designed software.

In noting that the PaRQ was used where there were stated goal indicators on which the questionnaire statements could be based, it was implied that this strategy might be of use in other situations where there are specific objectives that could be re-written as questionnaire statements. Ilg (2013) described an evaluation strategy in which leaders of a group exchange stated their objectives and these were used to create statements for use in the end of programme questionnaire for participants. Similarly, in situations where a set of objectives has already been devised, this process would be more standardised and the use of the predictive and reflective strategies would be more straightforward. This might have the twin advantages both of drawing participant attention to their programme objectives and of demonstrating individual learning, as suggested above. The potential use of a PaRQ strategy might, thus, be considered in other organisations where there are clear learning objectives. In this context it may provide a potential new contribution to the range of assessment tools available for use in non-formal education.

6.8 Limitations of the research

The potential for use of the PaRQ in other CISV programmes for teenagers and in other organisations which have specific objectives has been outlined in the previous section. However, its use is still an innovative strategy requiring further development and limitations to the current research must also be addressed.

6.8.1 Limitations of the PaRQ research

The earlier chapters in this thesis have described research in one CISV Summer Camp with 36 youth participants aged 14 to 15 years and from nine different countries. While the results described apply to this one case study, the potential for the use of PaRQ in CISV programmes more widely or for use in other organisations would require further trials. Data from responses by the 36 youth participants was reported in descriptive statistics and displayed graphically. Analysis of comments in narrative spaces and of interview transcripts involved the use of qualitative strategies. Such detailed analysis might present a challenge for use in all CISV three week programmes for teenagers (currently approximately 40 Step Up programmes for ages 14 and 15 and about 20 Seminars for age 17/18 each year). Further use, however, might help to identify common features from which a simplified protocol for analysis could be derived and responsible members of programme staff could be trained to use this as a tool for programme development.

Use of a PaRQ strategy in other organisations would require transformation of specific objectives to questionnaire statements and the development of appropriate protocol(s) for analysis of results. The need for training in use of the strategies for

analysis of data and time to analyse results might be seen as limitations to use of this strategy, but are not insurmountable.

Linked to the potential further use of a PaRQ strategy, as discussed above, is the aspect of subjectivity. Since part of the research was consideration of the views of individual participants, recorded in their narrative spaces, the subjectivity of participants and the encouragement of individual reflection on their learning might be considered as positive. However, the potential for subjectivity of the researcher to affect the interpretation of data must be recognised, and it should be acknowledged that a different person might have made alternative interpretations.

In considering the PaRQ as a research instrument, it was designed with only one statement related to each programme goal indicator in order to keep the process as simple as possible for participants who had limited proficiency in English. It might be improved by offering more than one statement for each indicator, although this would make administration longer and might pose additional translation challenges for leaders who needed to support their delegation members. A specific problem was identified in the wording of question 4, “I can use the ‘Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply’ model to plan and run activities”, being more precise than the goal indicator statement 2b, “Participate in planning and running activities”, although the PaRQ statement had been written to reflect the model advocated in CISV educational documentation. This was the one indicator where the adult leaders scored more participants as achieving the indicator than youth participants felt, themselves, to have achieved it. Where results of youth self-scoring and adult leader marking of related achievements are to be compared the equivalence of the statements used should be checked carefully and piloting with a small group of participants is recommended.

It is also noted that completion of the narrative spaces to answer questions about learning in the programme and learning about oneself immediately followed responses to the end of programme PaRQ. It is possible that responding to the PaRQ items may have prompted some of what was written in the narrative spaces so it might be useful to trial completion of these questions at a separate time or before responding to the end of programme PaRQ.

6.8.2 Limitations of interviews with adult leaders

Interviews with the nine delegation leaders were planned to be conducted in an informal way in order to encourage these adults to express their own opinion about the areas of interest as freely as possible. However, they were aware of the researcher's interest in programme development and in the use of the PDPEF. In such a situation there is a danger of research interviewer comments or questions indicating a direction of the conversation and thus influencing the outcome. Time available for the interviews was also rather restricted so, although planned to be informal, they may have been more directed than would have been ideal. A further potential limitation, again, might be subjectivity in the researcher's interpretation of the comments recorded.

6.8.3 Limitations of observations

Participation for observation during the first four days and final three days of the programme was restricted in terms of opportunity to observe the development of group work and interactions between participants. The restricted time available also limited the opportunity to have informal conversations with leaders. Such conversations might have revealed more about the ways in which leaders were interpreting the learning of their delegation members or about their perspectives on use of the PDPEF, which could

have provided additional data to that obtained in the leader interviews. While the beginning and end of programme researcher participation was adequate for administration of the youth questionnaires, a longer participation period or full immersion in the programme would have provided richer opportunities to understand the development of the programme and the learning opportunities provided for the youth participants.

6.9 Chapter summary

This chapter has developed some analysis of the findings presented in the previous chapter. It has considered the learning of the youth participants during the Summer Camp and related that learning to Fantini's model of Intercultural Competence (ICC) and to the programme goals. The chapter also considered the apparent negative change in some of the PaRQ scores and presented a rationale for these changes in terms of growing competence in the aspects of learning specified as PaRQ statements developing a more accurate appreciation of earlier levels of competence. Following an exploration of adult leader expectations of their delegations' achievement, a comparison of youth and adult perspectives on the learning outcomes was undertaken. It was noted that the Group Evaluation Form (GEF) was seen by leaders as a tool for evaluation of individual participant progress rather than as a tool for programme monitoring and planning, plus final evaluation, as advised in on-line guidance notes.

The research questions introduced in Chapter 2, section 2.6, were addressed more systematically in section 6.6 so as to provide clearer answers than in the discussions of findings in the earlier parts of the chapter. Subsequent sections considered the potential use of PaRQ in other contexts, both in CISV and in other organisations which offer

programmes of non-formal learning, and addressed some limitations of the research detailed in this thesis.

The final chapter of the thesis will offer some conclusions and recommendations for further research.

Chapter 7

Conclusions and recommendations

7.1 Chapter introduction

This final chapter positions the research described in earlier chapters in a brief discussion of the relationship between evaluation and research. It then provides a summary of the main findings before considering the contributions of this present study to the wider field of evaluation of learning in non-formal education. Some potential further applications of the work undertaken in the current project are proposed before the chapter concludes with suggestions for further research.

7.2 Evaluation and research

Liddy (2010) claims that “Research is everyday practice in our lives,” and, through a practical example, she subsequently suggests that evaluation is the most frequently cited purpose of research in (non-formal) development education. Liddy (ibid) notes the potential confusion of monitoring and evaluation, but clarifies the distinction as a difference of purpose. In doing this, she argues that both are concerned with the achievement of goals or objectives but suggests that monitoring is concerned with operational and administrative issues while evaluation has a more strategic purpose in its intention to inform practice (formative evaluation) or assess impact (summative evaluation). Liddy (ibid) maintains that evaluation can be seen as “. . . applied and strategic research, utilising social science methods to rigorously examine the added-value and acknowledge the impact of educational or training programmes.” (p. 1)

A more straight forward view, and that of the researcher in this project, would be to consider monitoring, evaluation and research as a range of investigative procedures with differing rationales, motivation, audiences and outcomes. Monitoring, as noted by

Liddy (ibid), is concerned with maintaining a regular overview of administrative matters and of the achievement of goals and objectives. It may involve the routine use of tools or strategies to understand what is happening in an organisation and ensure that standards are being maintained.

Evaluation will normally involve the purposeful collection of specific information in order to make judgements. In this respect, evaluation may well use strategies which could be considered to be forms of research, as suggested by Liddy (ibid) and Smith (2006). However, the purpose of an evaluation is likely to be quite focussed, frequently designed to either demonstrate that something is (or is not) working well or to improve the way in which a project or organisation is working. A distinction is sometimes drawn between ‘formative’ evaluation, planned to show where improvement can be made in a specific process or programme, and ‘summative’ evaluation, designed to demonstrate achievement or fulfilment of the original goals. In the context of education, whether formal, non-formal or informal, the term “evaluation” is often used to indicate an assessment of the achievement of participants or of the value of the programme in which they have participated. It is in these senses that the term “evaluation” has been used in the current work.

Dornyei (2007) suggests that “‘research’ simply means trying to find answers to questions, an activity everyone of us does all the time to learn more about the world around us.” (p. 15). He goes on to suggest that in a more academic context there is a distinction between what is usually termed ‘secondary’ research (consulting earlier information on a topic or specific subject and drawing conclusions from this research) and ‘primary’ research in which one purposefully collects information (data) from which to draw conclusions. A further distinction can be drawn, within primary research, between research work designed to test hypotheses and that which is more

exploratory in generating ideas or considering the potential of new tools. This latter may even generate tools or ideas which may then need further, hypothesis based, research as validation. While evaluation and research may sometimes use similar methods or strategies, the crucial distinction between the two activities lies in their purpose. As suggested earlier, evaluation has the purpose to consider existing evidence (or use purpose generated evidence such as test results) to look at the progress or benefit of a process or programme. Research is testing or exploring some phenomena in order to generate new knowledge, which might have the potential to lead to further research and development of new ideas, procedures or processes.

Liddy's (2010) statement, above, arguing that evaluation is strategic analysis of an educational or training programme, suggests that such work is purposeful and carefully planned to investigate specific aspects of the programme. Some of the work reported in earlier chapters was planned with aims similar to these. That is, it was designed to evaluate and analyse the learning of the youth participants in a CISV Summer Camp. In using a purpose-designed, innovative, tool for this the work was also concerned with exploratory research into the potential value of this new tool. This consisted of a new form of questionnaire which adopted a reflective strategy to help the participants consider what they had learned and how they had learned it (the Predictive and Reflective Questionnaire (PaRQ)), complemented by the opportunity to respond to open questions in narrative spaces. A third aspect of the work used inter-personal research to obtain reflection on the use of the existing evaluation tool, the Group Evaluation Form (GEF) section of the Programme Director's Planning and Evaluation Form (PDPEF). While this last aspect of the work recounted may be somewhat specific to CISV, it is

suggested that the format of the PaRQ (adapted to the relevant objectives) has potential for use in other organisations or situations of non-formal learning.

The fieldwork for this project was carefully designed to have minimal impact on the normal progress of the Summer Camp on which the case study was based. This was to ensure both that the participants had their expected experience and that the work undertaken was, as far as possible, in a representative, “typical” Summer Camp. Research instruments were straight forward for participants to complete. The beginning and end of programme questionnaires provided results which could be compared in order to evaluate the impact of participants’ learning. Their writing in narrative spaces was planned to be a means of obtaining more personal, qualitative, data which could be analysed in its own right but, also, could be used for comparison with the questionnaire data in a form of triangulation. The GEF (Group Evaluation Form) was completed by leaders, as is general practice in CISV programmes, so obtaining this information for later use did not impose any change in practice. Interviews with leaders were organised during periods of “free time” so that the leaders were able to take part in all activities and there was minimal disruption to the programme. Involvement during a few days at the beginning and end of the programme provided opportunities to engage with participants and adult leaders in informal discussion as well as to observe some of the activities in the Summer Camp.

7.3 Summary of findings

In the terms outlined by Liddy (ibid) as purposeful and planned, this thesis has set out to examine the impact on the youth participants of their participation in a short term, residential, intercultural programme; to explore the use of a new tool for evaluation of learning in non-formal education; and, to inform practice of adult leaders and

programme staff by probing their use of an existing method of monitoring CISV programmes. The first two of these objectives were closely intertwined, in that the use of the new tool (PaRQ) has been explored as a means of assessing the impact of participation in the Summer Camp for the youth participants, simultaneously with assessment of their, self-reported, learning. The goal indicators used in the existing method of monitoring participant achievement, the PDPEF / GEF, were used as the basis for the construction of the new tool. This meant that the views of the youth participants could easily be compared with the adult impressions of youth achievement, as noted on the routine reporting forms, (the Group Evaluation Form section of the PDPEF and associated Individual Evaluation Forms). The adult leader perspectives on use of this pre-existing tool, both in any previous programmes in which they had an adult role and in the case study programme, were also explored.

The research questions, introduced in section 2.6, were set out in terms of evaluating the participants' learning, both as they saw their own learning and as participant learning was observed by the adult leaders, then by comparing the two perspectives. Tabulation of the youth participants' self-scores on their PaRQ forms and the compilation of histograms from the results (reported in chapter 5) showed general positive movement of scores for the participant group as a whole, which was confirmed by the use of a t-test to compare beginning and end scores. Comparison of beginning and end scores for individual participants showed re-adjustment of perceptions of starting scores on various statements for many of the participants. These re-adjustments suggested that participants may have, initially, inflated their perceptions of competence on several items. This was similar to the results reported by Bennett (2009) and Jackson (2009), when they noted inflated perceptions of intercultural competence in comparing their subjects' perspectives on ICC with actual scores on the IDI. It was posited that, for the participants in the CISV Summer Camp, their understanding of the

indicators had developed during the programme and, so, at the end they had a more clearly defined perspective on what had been their level of competence at the beginning. This is seen as a valuable outcome of use of this predictive and reflective questionnaire strategy. The growth in competence suggested in the changing scores of participants was supported by comments written in narrative spaces in response to questions about learning during the programme. In fact, narrative responses were generally positive, even in those cases where movement on the PaRQ scales was minimal or, in a few cases, appeared to be negative.

The self-reported scores and narrative comments on personal learning also provided evidence that could be compared with the leaders' opinions on the goal achievement of individual delegation members. This comparison revealed some differences in views of achievement of programme indicators which needed a high level of English language use. The discrepancies between youth participant self-scores on specific questionnaire statements and leader marking of achievement of the comparable indicator were focussed in two or three delegations, so it is difficult to know if there were genuine differences in the competence of participants or if the leaders of these delegations were using more stringent personal criteria than other leaders. It is possible that longer periods of observation might have enabled the researcher to form her own judgement on the specific items for the participants involved. Alternatively, if a similar strategy were used to evaluate learning in a context where use of an additional language was not required this complexity would be avoided.

The use of the GEF / PDPEF was considered intrinsic to sub-question 2.3: *How did the use of evidence from the achievement / non-achievement of goals and indicators impact on programme planning?* In fact, it was found that the GEF had little, if any, impact on activity or programme planning in this case study and similar practice was

reported by these volunteer leaders for other programmes in which they had been involved. The leaders' perspective on use of this pre-existing form, recorded in informal interviews, was for evaluation of individual participant progress rather than as a tool for planning or for monitoring the development of the programme.

7.4 Research contribution

The work reported and discussed in chapters three to six, and summarised above, has explored the use of a new form of questionnaire, devised to both probe and record the learning of participants in a programme of non-formal education. Although the research was undertaken in a specific intercultural organisation it is suggested that this strategy might be useful in other settings for non-formal education. A particular value of the predictive and reflective strategy used appears to be in the rationalisation or “recalibration” (Thurber, Scanlin, Scheuler and Henderson, 2007) by participants of their perception of their own, original, level of competence. It is argued that use of this revised position as a starting point gives a clearer picture of participants' learning within the programme than is obtained just by repeated use of the same questionnaire items at the beginning and end of such a programme, where the initial score may be somewhat inflated, (Bennett, 2009; Jackson, 2009). In addition, this reflective strategy can take account of an apparent regression in scores, such as that noted by Jiang Yan (2010). This specific change from initial score to the reflective score also acknowledges the suggestion made by Kruger and Dunning (1999) that “it takes competence to recognise competence,” (p. 1128).

In addition to the scaled score items related to goal indicators (programme objectives), the use of narrative spaces for participants to record their own views of their learning offered opportunity for individuals to state what they had found to be important

or valuable. This might also be seen as a strategy for recording participant perceptions of learning that were not covered by the goal indicators. This combination of structured responses on the scaled questions and the chance to write about learning from their own perspective provided two ways of evaluating their experiences in the programme, thus offering strategies which might suit learners who had differing preferences for recording their learning. In this respect, too, the responses in the narrative spaces provided a means of triangulation of some of the questionnaire data, as well as an opportunity for participants to further reflect on what they felt had been the most important aspects of learning during this short term programme. Identification of learning shared by several participants might be useful in helping staff or leaders in similar programmes, or other organisations, to structure appropriate situations either to reinforce opportunities for desired outcomes or attempt to avoid situations that might lead to undesired outcomes. It is suggested that offering participants the opportunity to self-score on programme objectives or goal indicators at the beginning of their programme might be valuable in drawing their attention to the programme goals, but the value of such awareness was not assessed in this project.

In summary, this project has two principal outcomes as contributions to research. Firstly, it has developed and demonstrated the use of a predictive and reflective questionnaire (PaRQ) for the evaluation of learning in non-formal education. Secondly, it proposes that this new tool facilitates the comparison of scaled scores with personal narratives of perceived learning. These two outcomes could be developed further for use in other organisations or situations where non-formal learning is proposed. A third outcome was more specific to CISV in finding that the Group Evaluation Form section of the PDPEF was simply used to record the individual achievement of participants rather than being used to promote programme planning and development as had originally been suggested.

7.5 Practical applications

As a strategy for the evaluation of learning in non-formal settings, and as noted above, it is suggested that the methods outlined in chapters three and four could be developed for use in other organisations or programmes which have clearly defined goal indicators or objectives that could be re-written as Likert scale statements. It could, further, be suggested that the use of narrative spaces, in offering participants the chance to write about what they felt to be the principal outcomes of their learning programme, help to clarify what is actually experienced as learning in short term programmes of non-formal education. From a research perspective, such comments can act as a form of triangulation of data obtained through a more structured format (such as Likert scale responses). From an organisational perspective it acknowledges that we need to appreciate that the outcomes of such programmes may not always be as anticipated, potentially indicating a need to change programme content in order to achieve specific goals.

Informal interviews with the nine delegation leaders, the majority of whom had previous leadership experience, provided opportunities to discuss programme development, activity planning, and use of the PDPEF / GEF in the current programme and in previous programmes in which they were involved. These discussions led to the conclusion that leaders saw the GEF as a means for recording achievement of individual participants rather than as the resource for monitoring programme progress, which is the intention suggested for its use in the on-line guidance notes. This may be a function of the way in which the form must be submitted to CISV International and the way in which results are compiled for further use at an international level, but may also indicate an area where better training of these volunteer adult leaders and staff members would

be useful. These findings remind us that such innovations are more successful when there is careful preparation of the people who will use them, as suggested in the discussion of innovation in chapter one, section 1.3. They may also point to a need for further specific training on the use of evaluation tools to complement the learning of leaders through peripheral participation (of first time leaders) in a community of practice (of more experienced leaders and host staff) (Lave and Wenger, 1991). It seems, then, that if a similar combined evaluation and planning tool were developed in another organisation, an integral part of the process to introduce it should be thorough training of those who would use the tool. The provision of adequate training for those who would use it might, similarly, be important if regular use of a PaRQ were to be instituted in any organisation.

7.6 Limitations and further research

The limitations of this research, described in the previous chapter, result in suggestions for research to further explore the strategies used for evaluation in non-formal learning. In particular, it would be useful to explore the use of a PaRQ strategy in other educational programmes, to see if it provides a useful picture of learning in different contexts. This might initially be attempted within CISV, particularly in Step Up (age 14 and 15 years), Seminar (age 17/18) and individual participant Youth Meeting (age 16/18 or 19+). However, as postulated in the last section, the strategy may also be of use in other organisations that have clearly articulated learning objectives from which appropriate questionnaire statements could be developed. It is appreciated that there might be a need to provide training or clearly written advice for those who would be using PaRQ to evaluate participant learning, and a need to develop

means of supporting the analysis of results, but the basic concept of PaRQ is offered as a potential new tool for evaluation of non-formal learning in other contexts.

It was suggested earlier that use of the PaRQ at the end of the programme may have drawn participants' attention to the programme goal indicators, written as questionnaire statements, and that these may have prompted ideas for some of the writing in narrative spaces. The richness of the data that emerged in these narrative spaces prompts the suggestion that a future research project, whether in CISV or another youth organisation, might involve participants writing their personal ideas about programme indicators at the beginning of a programme as well as commenting on their learning at the end of the programme. Analysis of such data from initial comments, using strategies based in grounded theory, might be revealing in exploring participants' expectations and their motivation to take part in the programme. Analysis of initial ideas about specific programme objectives (goal indicators) might also be valuable in obtaining more detailed information on the participants' underlying levels of competence on, and understanding of, these objectives prior to participation as well as at the end of a programme. Study of participants' written notes on their expectations might also help leaders and / or programme staff to promote activities which would help the youth participants to work towards their goals. From an educational perspective such early engagement with the programme goals might also provide the participants themselves with greater focus for their personal development within the programme and prompt ideas for continuing to work towards these goals after programme participation.

Within CISV, the finding that leaders see the GEF primarily as a means for evaluation of individual participant progress suggests a need for further research into how best to facilitate monitoring and planning of educational activities. Alternatively, or

possibly in addition, an emphasis could be made in leadership training workshops on the *planning* function of the form.

In addition to the suggestions for further enquiry noted above, which relate to further development or potential future use of the PaRQ in other organisations offering opportunities for non-formal learning, one other area was identified that may be of interest for further research. It was suggested earlier that a few youth participants may have felt that they were able to communicate effectively with peers from other countries, while their leaders were less confident of ability in this area. Therefore, it might be useful to specifically explore the youth participants' own views of their level of communicative competence in working with their peers from other countries versus the views of participants' linguistic competence taken by those in leadership roles.

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Appendix 1:

Summer Camp Programme Director's Planning and
Evaluation Form: Group Evaluation Form

Summer Camp Group Evaluation Form **For Programme Director's Planning and Evaluation Form (PDPEF)**

1. Develop intercultural awareness	3. Develop self awareness
1 a) Share own culture with the camp	3 a) Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders
1 b) Learn about at least two other cultures through different activities	3 b) Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts
	3 c) Express independent ideas to promote group development
	3 d) Increase self confidence
2. Develop leadership skills	4. Develop cooperative skills
2 a) Receive training on how to plan and lead an activity , before and during the first days of camp	4 a) Work together as a team in planning and leading activities
2 b) Participate in planning and running activities	4 b) Help others feel included in the group
2 c) Contribute during group discussion	
2 d) Suggest solutions and solve problems objectively	

☐ = No and ☒ = Yes

		Goal 1				Goal 2				Goal 3				Goal 4			
Country	(M= Male F=Female)																
		1a	1b	1c	1a	2b	2c	2d	2d	3a	3b	3c	3d	4a	4b	4c	4d

Appendix 2:
“Quick Notes” for Programme Director’s
Planning and Evaluation Form

QUICK NOTES

PDPEF 2011

Introduction

These Quick Notes will familiarize you with the format of the PDPEF. To maximize the benefits of the PDPEF, please carefully review CISV's educational materials:

The Passport (info file, T- 03) and
Big Ed (info file, T-02), and the
Complete Notes to Educational Evaluation, and the PDPEF Training Session.

The Programme Director's Planning and Evaluation Form (PDPEF) is a tool to help plan and evaluate CISV programmes.

The PDPEF is to be used by people with programme responsibility – Programme Directors, Staff, Leaders, Junior Staff, Interchange Junior and Co-Leaders as well as National and Local Interchange Coordinators (NIC/LIC). Staff and older participants are also encouraged to contribute to the PDPEF, and the planning and evaluation of the programme.

Instructions

The Programme Director, NIC or LIC is responsible to ensure the PDPEF is used, completed and submitted online within 2 weeks after the end of the programme or Host Phase. For Interchange, a PDPEF must be completed for each Hosting Phase and it is the responsibility of the hosting NIC/LIC to complete and submit it within 2 weeks of the end of that phase.

The PDPEF is to be used during all phases of your programme. Within the PDPEF, sub-headings "before, throughout or after" indicate the best time to fill in the requested information.

The PDPEF has 6 sections. Please review the form carefully, and complete the sections as you plan and evaluate your programme.

As you access the form online, you can save content and print as needed. To access the PDPEF visit <http://forms.cisv.org/pdpef/>.

PDPEF SECTION ONE (1) Administration:

Information for the International Office (IO)

This section requests administrative information about the programme, its staff, leaders and participants. It records all the necessary information for the programme that includes:

- Friends pre-registration
- Address List
- Attendance Information
- Issues

- Health, Legal and Insurance forms
- Arrival and departure information

There are sub-sections that must be completed before, throughout and after your programme.

PDPEF SECTION TWO (2) Education:

Information for the International Programme Committees, NA's, and Education Department

Section 2 is to be used at ALL PHASES of the programme as a tool to help staff, leaders, and sometimes delegates to plan and evaluate the educational content for your programme.

TO PLAN

To assist with planning, the following sub-sections are to be discussed and recorded in the PDPEF before the programme begins:

2.1 Programme Theme and use of the Peace Education content

2.2 The use of CISV's Educational Tools

2.3 Evidence to be collected (we want to know which activities you will plan to achieve the programme goals and indicators, and which information or evidence will you collect which demonstrates that the programme goals and indicators have been achieved). In other words:

- *What delegates will learn?*
- *How will they learn it? And,*
- *How you will know it has been learned?*

TO EVALUATE

Throughout the programme, the Programme Director, Staff, Leaders and Junior Leaders, and older participants can use sub-section 2.4 and the Individual Evaluation Forms (IEF) to evaluate the progress of the programme goals and indicators. The IEF is an optional form which can be used throughout the programme by Leaders, Junior Leaders or participants to keep track of their learning outcomes. They can then be used as a reference to complete section 2.4 at the end of the programme.

In sub-section 2.4, each programme must provide an evaluation for each delegate.

Our primary objective is to evaluate the programme's effectiveness. We are NOT evaluating the level of individual's achievement. Therefore, the form will only allow two options. Place a tick in the appropriate box when the indicator has been achieved (at any level). An empty box means "not achieved". If you are unsure if the indicator has been achieved please leave the box empty and this will be counted as "not achieved".

Other sub-sections request information on research, inclusion and the featured Educational Content area for the programme year.

For more about "How to Evaluate" learning goals please refer to the Complete Notes to Educational Evaluation or visit the Evaluation webpage in the Library.

PDPEF SECTION THREE (3) Practical Arrangements:

Information for the International Programme Committees and NA's.

This section can be monitored informally throughout the programme. Include information from staff, leader and participant feedback about the site, food, facilities and arrangements, transportation, etc.

Interchange's Section 3 is different from the other programmes, and will only be available for Interchange programmes. It will request information on the Host Families and Interchange Partners.

PDPEF SECTION FOUR (4) Recommendations and Risk Management:

Information for Information for IO, International Programme Committees, NAs and the International Risk Management Committee.

Once the programme is complete, please provide information about exceptional leaders, those who may have cause for concern, and health or other incidents that should be brought to the attention of the International Risk Management Committee.

NEW! PDPEF SECTION FIVE (5) Media and Community Activities:

Information for IO, International Programme Committees and Education Department.

This new section is to record our valuable contributions to our communities and the organisations with whom we partner. Please provide a brief summary of the community project and the contact information for the Partner Organisation (PO) or like minded organisation who was involved.

We respectfully request all Programme Directors, NIC's and LIC's to have the PO or LMO complete the NEW! Partner Organisation Evaluation within 2 weeks of the end of the project by sending the following link to your PO contact:

<http://bit.ly/hFaHhE>

The EVR will collect and process the PO Evaluations.

PDPEF SECTION SIX(6) Additional Comments:

Information for Information for IO, International Programme Committees, and Education Department.

This section is made available to add any other comments to the evaluation of the programme.

Thank You!

For More Information

Visit <http://resources.cisv.org/education/evaluation>

or Email : evaluation.research@cisv.org

CISV International Official Document Valid from 2011

The version of ‘Quick Notes’ given in this appendix is that which was available in 2011. The current version is available at:

<http://www.cisv.org/search/?q=PDPEF&x=2&y=15>

Appendix 3:

Programme Director's Planning and Evaluation Form, 2011:
Individual Evaluation Form

Participant:

	Y/N	Comments/Evidence
1. Develop intercultural awareness		
1 a) Share own culture with the camp		
1 b) Learn about at least two other cultures through different activities		
2. Develop leadership skills		
2 a) Receive training on how to plan and lead an activity , before and during the first days of camp		
2 b) Participate in planning and running activities		
2 c) Contribute during group discussion		
2 d) Suggest solutions and solve problems objectively		
3. Develop self awareness		
3 a) Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders		
3 b) Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts		
3 c) Express independent ideas to promote group development		
3 d) Increase self confidence		
4. Develop cooperative skills		
4 a) Work together as a team in planning and leading activities		
4 b) Help others feel included in the group		

Appendix 4:
Youth Participant Questionnaire Agreement Form



Department of Applied Linguistics, BIRKBECK, University of London,
Malet Street, London WC1E 7HX Telephone: 020 7631 6000

Title of Study: Evaluating Informal Intercultural Education Programmes: A Case Study of the Implementation and Impact of New Educational Tools and Resources in an International Children's Charity (CISV)

Name of researcher: Jennifer Watson

This study is part of my MPhil/PhD degree in the Department of Applied Linguistics, Birkbeck, University of London. It is supervised by Dr Zhu Hua who may be contacted at the above address and telephone number. The study has received ethical approval. This study wants to know what **you** think about the CISV Programme in which you are taking part this summer. **Your** ideas are very important to CISV to help us to improve programmes.

No other people will see your questionnaire so you can be completely honest.

Your name will not be used in any report written about this study.

Please sign in the space below to show that you understand that your answers will be kept confidential and that you agree to take part in the project.

Signature

Date.....

THANK YOU for your help.

Jennifer



Department of Applied Linguistics, BIRKBECK, University of London,
Malet Street, London WC1E 7HX Telephone: 020 7631 6000

Study: Evaluating Informal Intercultural Education Programmes

Researcher: Jennifer Watson

This study is part of my MPhil/PhD degree in the Department of Applied Linguistics, Birkbeck, University of London. It is supervised by Dr Zhu Hua who may be contacted at the above address and telephone number. The study has received ethical approval. This study wants to know what **you** think about the CISV Programme in which you are taking part this summer. **Your** ideas are very important to CISV to help us to improve programmes.

No other people will see your questionnaire so you can be completely honest.

Your name will not be used in any report written about this study.

Please sign in the space below to show that you understand that your answers will be kept confidential and that you agree to take part in the project.

Signature

Date.....

THANK YOU for your help.

Jennifer

Appendix 5:
Youth Participant Questionnaire:
Beginning of Programme

Cross the box which best describes how you feel about what you can do now.[X]

Put a question mark (?) in the box which describes how well you think you will do these things at the end of the summer camp.

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
Example: I have many friends in the Summer Camp	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Summer Camp	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan and run activities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
05. I can contribute to group discussions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. I am confident in what I do	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan and lead activities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please list any other CISV programmes in which you have taken part. Give the programme name, date and country, e.g. Village, 2008, Russia.

Appendix 6:
Youth Participant Questionnaire:
End of Programme

Cross the box which best describes how you feel about what you can do now.[X]

Put a question mark (?) in the box which describes how the sentence would have described you at the beginning of the summer camp

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
Example: I have many friends in the Summer Camp	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x]
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan and run activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan and lead activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

<p>Please tell us a few things that you learned by coming to the Summer Camp: (you can have more paper if you need it)</p>	<p>Now please tell us what you learned about yourself by coming to this Summer Camp: (you can have more paper if you need it)</p>
--	---

To help me check that I have all the papers, please put your name on the back of each paper you used. Your name will **not** be used in any report. **Thank you** for everything you have written. We hope to use it to improve CISV programmes for other people.

Appendix 7:
Adult Information and Consent Form



Department of Applied Linguistics, BIRKBECK , University of London,
Malet Street, London WC1E 7HX tel: 020 7631 6000

Title of Study: Evaluating Informal Intercultural Education Programmes: A Case Study of the Implementation and Impact of New Educational Tools and Resources in an International Children's Charity (CISV)

Name of researcher: Jennifer Watson

The study is being done as part of my MPhil/PhD degree in the Department of Linguistics, Birkbeck, University of London. The study is supervised by Dr Zhu Hua, who may be contacted at the above address and telephone number, and has received ethical approval. .

This study intends to explore use and value of the Programme Directors' Planning and Evaluation Form (PDPEF) in a CISV Summer Camp

If you agree to participate you will agree a convenient time and place for me to interview you for about 20 minutes. You are free to stop the interview and withdraw at any time.

A code will be attached to your data so it remains totally anonymous.

Information from our interview may be included with that from others and written up in a report of the study for my degree. You will **not** be identifiable in the write up or any publication which might ensue.



Consent form: Participant copy

Evaluating Informal Intercultural Education Programmes: A Case Study of the Implementation and Impact of New Educational Tools and Resources in an International Children's Charity (CISV)

Researcher: Jennifer Watson

I have been informed about the nature of this study and willingly consent to take part.

I understand that the content of the interview will be kept confidential.

I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time.

I am over 16 years of age.

Name _____

Signed _____ Date _____

.....



Consent form: Researcher copy

Evaluating Informal Intercultural Education Programmes: A Case Study of the Implementation and Impact of New Educational Tools and Resources in an International Children's Charity (CISV)

Researcher: Jennifer Watson

I have been informed about the nature of this study and willingly consent to take part.

I understand that the content of the interview will be kept confidential.

I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time.

I am over 16 years of age.

Name _____

Signed _____ Date _____

Appendix 8:
Adult Leader Questionnaire

Cross the box **[X]** which best describes how many of your delegation can do these things **now**.

Put a question mark **[?]** in the box which describes how many of your delegation members you think will be able to do these things at the **end** of the summer camp.

	0	1	2	3	4	I do not know
Example: I have friends in the Summer Camp	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
01. Members of my delegation can share their culture with other people	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
02. Members of my delegation know about other nationalities at the Summer Camp	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
03. Members of my delegation are trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
04. Members of my delegation use the experiential learning cycle to plan and run activities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
05. Members of my delegation can contribute to group discussions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
06. Members of my delegation are good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
07. Members of my delegation can lead parts of the programme without adult assistance	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
08. Members of my delegation use their personal feelings and thoughts in debriefing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
09. Members of my delegation can make their ideas clear so that others understand	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Members of my delegation are confident in what they do	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Members of my delegation can cooperate with others to plan and lead activities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Members of my delegation can make sure that other participants feel included in group plans	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Please list any other CISV programmes in which you have taken part. Give your role, the programme name, date and country, e.g. Youth participant, Summer Camp, 2001, China; Leader, Village, 2008, Russia

Appendix 9:
Summer Camp Activity Planning Template,
Great Britain 2011

WACKY RACES ACTIVITY

PLANNING TEMPLATE

Date	
Name	
Who's running it?	
Duration	
Materials	
Goal	
Energiser	
Instructions	
Group Evaluation	
Planning Group Evaluation	

Appendix 10:

Comparison of beginning and end scores on
questionnaires, using statements based on goal indicators

Upper arrow (~~x~~ to x) shows change in self-perception from beginning of programme to end of programme.

Lower arrow shows difference between reflective score (?) and self-perception (x) at end of programme.

Country A, F1

	Disagree strongly	Disagree a little	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?x]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[??]	[x]	[]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[??x]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[??x]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[x??]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?x]	[?]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x?x]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?x]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?x]	[?]	[]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?x]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?x]

Country A, F2

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?x]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[x]	[?]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[x]	[?]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[x]	[?]	[]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[?x]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]	[]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[?x]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[?]	[?]	[x]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[x]	[?]

Country A, M1

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?x]	[]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[xx]	[?]	[]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[x?]	[x]	[?]	[]	[]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[?x]	[]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[?x]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[xx]	[]	[?]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[x]	[?]	[]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[x]	[?]	[]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[x]	[?]

Country A, M 2

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?]x]
						→	→
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?]x]
					→	→	→
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[x?]
					→	←	
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[xx]	[?]
					→	→	
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[x?]
					→	←	
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?]x]	[]
					→	→	
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?]x]	[]
					→	→	
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[xx]	[]
					→	→	
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[xx]	[]	[?]
				→	→		
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x?]x]
					→	→	→
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x?]x]
					→	→	→
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?]	
			→	→	→		

Country B, M1

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x?]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[x]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[?x]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[x?]	[x]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[x?]	[x]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[]	[x]	[?]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[x]	[?]	[x]	[]	[]	[]	[?]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[x]	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[]	[?]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[x]	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[]	[?]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[x]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[?]
10. I am confident in what I do	[x]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[?]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[x?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[?]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[x ?]	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[]	[?]

Country B, M2

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[x]	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[?]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[x]	[]	[?]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[x]	[?]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[xx]	[?]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[x]	[?]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[x]	[?]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[?x]

Country B, F1

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]	[]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[x]	[?]	[]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[?x]	[]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[xx]	[]	[?]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[?x]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]	[]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[?x]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]

Country B, F2

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[x]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[?]	[x]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[x]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]	[]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[x]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[?]	[]	[x]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]

Country C, F1

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]
						→	→
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[x]	[?]
					→	→	
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]
						→	→
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]
					→	→	→
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x?x]
						→	→
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?x]
						→	→
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?x]
					→	→	→
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?x]
							→
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[x]	[?]
					→	→	
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?x?]
							→
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x ?]	[?x]
						→	→
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]
					→	→	→

Country C, F2

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x?x]
						→	→
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[x]	[]	[?]
			→	→	→		
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]
					→	→	→
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[?x]
				→	→	→	→
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[?x]
				→	→	→	→
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[x]	[?]
					→	→	
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]
					→	→	→
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?x]
						→	→
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[xx]	[?]
				→	→	→	→
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?x]
						→	→
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]
					→	→	→
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[x]	[?]
			→	→	→	→	→

Country C, M1

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp []	[x]	[]	[]	[?x]	[?]	[]	
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[]	[?]	[x]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[?x]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[?]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?x]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[x]	[]	[]	[?]	[?x]	[]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[x]	[?]	[]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[?]	[?x]	[]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[x]	[?]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[x]	[]	[]	[?x]	[?]	[]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[?]	[?x]	[]

Country C, M2

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x?x]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?]	[x]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?]	[x]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]	[]	[]	[?]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?x]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[?x]	[]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[?x]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x?x]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?x]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x?x]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[x?]

Country D, F1

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[?]	[x]	[]	[]	[?x]	[]	[]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?x]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[x]	[?]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[xx]	[]	[?]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[x]	[?]

Country D, F2

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[?x]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[x]	[]	[??]	[]	[]	[x]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[?x]	[]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[xx]	[?]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[xx]	[?]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[xx]	[?]	[]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]	[]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[x]	[?]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[?x]	[]

Country D, M1

	Disagree strongly []	Disagree []	Disagree a little [?]	Do not know []	Agree a little []	Agree [xx]	Agree a lot [?]
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp						▶	
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[??]	[x]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[x]	[?]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[]	[?]	[x?]	[]	[x]	[]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[xx]	[]	[?]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[x]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[??]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]	[]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[??]	[]	[x]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]

Country D, M2

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[x?]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[x]	[?]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]	[]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[x?]	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]	[]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[x]	[?]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[?]	[x]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[?x]

Country E, F1

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]
						→	→
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[?x]
						→	→
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]	[]
						→	→
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]	[]
						→	→
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]
						→	→
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
						→	→
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[?x]
						→	→
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[?]nr
						→	→
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
						→	→
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[xx]	[]	[?]
						→	→
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[xx]	[?]
						→	→
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[?x]
						→	→

Country E, F2

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[xx]	[?]
						→	
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]
						→	
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[]	[?]	[x]
						→	
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[]	[??]	[x]
						→	
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]
						→	
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]	[]
						→	
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[?x]
						→	
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]
						→	
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?]	[x]
						→	
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?]	[x]	[]
						→	
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?]	[x]
						→	
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]
						→	

Country E, M1

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[?x]	[]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[?]	[]	[?x]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[??]	[x]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[?]	[xx]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[x?]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]	[]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[x]	[?]

Country E, M2

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[?]	[x]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[x]	[?]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x?x]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[?]	[x]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?x]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[??]	[x]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[?]	[x]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[xx]	[?]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?x]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]

Country F, F1

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]	[]
					→	→	
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[??]	[x]
					→	→	→
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[?x]	[]
				→	→	→	
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]	[]
					→	→	
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[?]	[x]nr
				→	→	→	
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]	[]
					→	→	
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]	[]
					→	→	
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]
						→	→
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]	[]
					→	→	
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[xx]	[?]	[]
				→	→	→	
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]	[]
					→	→	
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[??]	[x]
					→	→	→

Country F, F2

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[]	[?x]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[x?]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?x]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[x?]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?x]	[]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[x]	[?]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[?]	[]	[xx]	[]	[]	[?]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[xx]	[]	[?]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]	[]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[x]	[?]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[?x]	[]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[x]	[?]

Country F, F3

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[xx]	[?]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?x]	[]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[x]	[?]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[?]	[]nr
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[xx]	[]	[?]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[?x]	[]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?]	[x]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[xx]	[?]	[]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[?]	[xx]	[]	[]	[?]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[xx]	[?]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[xx]	[?]

Country F, M1

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[?x]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[x]	[?]	[]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[x]	[]	[?]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[]	[?]	[]nr
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[]	[?]	[]nr
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[x]	[]	[?]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[xx]	[]	[]	[?]	[?]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[x]	[?]	[x]	[]	[?]	[]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[x]	[]	[?]
10. I am confident in what I do	[?]	[x]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[x]	[?]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[?x]	[]

Country G, F1

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]	[]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[x]	[]	[?]	[?x]	[]	[]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[x]	[]	[?]	[?x]	[]	[]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[]	[x]	[??]	[x]	[]	[]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[?]	[x]	[]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]	[]	[]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[]	[x??]	[]	[x]	[]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[xx]	[?]	[]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?x]	[]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[x]	[?]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[x]	[?]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[x]	[?]

Country G, F2

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[]	[?x]	[]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[x]	[?]	[]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[x]	[?]	[]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[]	[?x]	[]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[x]	[]	[?]	[?]	[x]	[]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[?x]	[]	[]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[x]	[]	[?]	[?]	[x]	[]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[]	[?x]	[]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[?x]	[]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[]	[?]	[x]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[]	[?x]	[]

Country G, M1

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
05. I can contribute to group discussions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. I am confident in what I do	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Country G, M2

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[x]	[]	[]	[?]	[?]	[x]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]	[]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[?]	[xx]	[]	[]	[?]	[]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[xx]	[?]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[?x]	[]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[x]	[?]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]	[]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]	[]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x?x]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[x]	[?]

Country H, M1

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[?]	[?]	[x]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[]	[?]	[?x]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]	[]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[x]	[?]	[]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[xx]	[?]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[xx]	[?]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[x]	[?]	[]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?x]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[x]	[?]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[xx]	[]	[?]

Country H, M2

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[x]	[??]	[]	[x]	[]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]	[]	[]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[x]	[?]	[]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[?]	[x]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[?]	[x]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]	[]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[?x]	[]	[]
10. I am confident in what I do	[x?]	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[]	[]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[x]	[??]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[?]	[x]	[?x]	[]	[]	[]	[]

Country H, F1

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[?x]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]	[]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[?]	[]	[x x]	[]	[?]	[]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[x]	[?]	[?]	[x]	[]	[]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[x]	[??]	[x]	[]	[]	[]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[x?]	[]	[]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[x]	[??]	[x]	[]	[]	[]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[x]	[??]	[x]	[]	[]	[]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[x]	[?]	[?]	[x]	[]	[]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[x]	[??]	[x]	[]	[]	[]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[x x]	[?]

Country H, F2

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?x]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[?x]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[]	[?x]	[]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]	[]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[x]	[?]	[]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[x]	[?]	[]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x x]	[?]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[x]	[?]	[]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[x]	[?]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[?x]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x x]	[?]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x x]	[?]

Country J, M1

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[?x]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[?x]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?x]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[?x]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[?x]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[x]	[?]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?x]	[]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[?x]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[xx]	[?]

Country J, M2

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[?x]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[xx]	[]	[?]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?]	[]	[?x]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[]	[?x]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[x]	[?]
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?x]	[]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?x]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[?x]

Country J, F1

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]nr
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[]	[]	[?]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[]nr
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[]	[x]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]nr
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[x]	[?]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[]	[?]x
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[xx]	[?]nr
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[x]	[?]
10. I am confident in what I do	[]	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[]	[]	[?]x
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[]	[]	[]	[]	[?]	[x]	[?]x

Country J, F2

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Disagree a little	Do not know	Agree a little	Agree	Agree a lot
01. I can share my culture with other people in this Summer Camp	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]
02. I know a lot about two of the other nationalities at the Camp	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[?x]
03. I am well trained to plan and lead activities in the Camp	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]
04. I can use the 'Do, Reflect, Generalise, Apply' model to plan & run activities	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]	[]
05. I can contribute to group discussions	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[x]
06. I am good at suggesting clear solutions to problems	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[?x]	[]
07. I can help my group to run the programme without leaders taking charge	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]
08. I use my own ideas when I take part in discussion after activities	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?x]nr
09. I can make my ideas clear so that other members of the group understand	[?]	[]	[]	[x]	[]	[x]	[?]
10. I am confident in what I do	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[x?x]
11. I can cooperate with other members of a group to plan & lead activities	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[?]	[x]
12. I can make sure that all members of the group feel included in our plans	[?]	[]	[]	[]	[x]	[x]	[?]

Appendix 11:

Youth Questionnaire Responses in Narrative Spaces

Youth Questionnaire Responses in Narrative Spaces

	Please tell us a few things that you learned by coming to the Summer Camp	Now please tell us what you learned about yourself by coming to this Summer Camp
Country A F1	First of all, of course, I learned a lot of things about other cultures that sometimes I'd never even heard of. Learned how to act in the middle of such different people and how to sort out some tensions and conflicts that occasionally might appear. The planning groups helped me to think outside the box to get a conclusion for a problem, as well as in my confidence to step up and lead.	I am more confident to take the lead when needed and to deal with different people. I think that at each CISV camp I grow a little more, sometimes I'm not even sure why. And here at this summer camp I feel like I have a better perception of who I am, what others see in me and what role I take in certain situations.
F2	In this camp I learned much more than I expected. I learned lots of wonderful cultures, learned to respect my friends, also learned that friendship is something very valuable and it doesn't matter where you are from or which is your culture, all of us can be friends and all of us can always learn more to make the world better (make a better world)	I learned that I can open my mind to challenges and that I can solve them, for example in the planning. I learned that I am confident in what I do and when I am in a group I can be who really I am because we are learning to accept each other the way we are. And finally I learned that I can count on new friends and that I make a difference in the world.
M1	Respect the cultures, don't think someone is boring until you really know them.	I can be an active person during the activities if I want and everybody will respect my opinion.
M2	Different cultures How to lead with success How to act in groups How to react in complicated situations To live with differences	To grasp unique opportunities To have success does not always mean to work hard To be normal is boring!
Country B M1	Learned a little bit about Georgia Seen how cool other countries alphabets are And learned how much I just do not understand someone How good fish and chips are in England	I like fish and chips I have my own accent I learned how to make friendship bracelets
M2	I learned more tolerance for other cultures. Also, I learned about planning. I love Summer Camps!	I am a leader. I led many activities and a camp meeting. Also I am good at learning Spanish insults.
F1	Games, be more out-going, more about different countries, learned how to throw a party, communicating with a language barrier, easier to make friends, Kitos, CISV Song	I can be a leader!
F2	I learned so much about other countries. I learned to be more patient in what I do! I learned how to make friends easier. I learned how to plan activities	I've learned to be a better speaker in front of a group of people without talking really fast and stuttering. I've learned to be patient with myself. I'm more confident in what I do. I've learned to be a great leader. I have got more knowledge and wisdom.
Country C F1	In this camp I learned many things but the most important one was to be a productive leader, not a destructive one. Also I learned to be responsible and to learn how to measure the time. Firstly to do my responsibilities and later to rest.	I learned that I've got a strong personality and that I need to learn to control myself. Also that in life not always you are going to be the leader. There are other leaders in the world and we must listen to them. But what I most learned is that when I decide to do something I can do it.

F2	<p>Confident</p> <p>Learned about others</p> <p>Live with other people</p> <p>Resolve problems</p> <p>Understand other people</p> <p>Respect other people's ideas</p> <p>Learned to hear others opinions that are different to mine</p>	<p>I can trust people that are on CISV</p> <p>I know to lead with problems</p> <p>A problem is just a problem that you can resolve it</p> <p>I like to talk in discussions</p>
M1	<p>I learned to control myself with the help of my leader and my friends in the delegation. Also, I've learned to make the best use of the time and to thanks everything I have, to make things calm and to respect others.</p>	<p>I can control myself and leave my insecurity behind, help me to realise that I can open myself and this can change the life.</p>
M2	<p>A conflict always starts with more than one person.</p> <p>Every conflict has a resolution, to find one both parts agree with is the difficult part.</p>	<p>I've learned that however the problem is, there's always something you can do to change that problem.</p> <p>I can speak out my mind, and people would / could agree with my thoughts.</p> <p>Being tolerant makes you stronger, and prepares you to major conflict you could have in the future.</p>
Country D F1	<p>Listen to other people</p> <p>To wait your turn, respect other people and cultures.</p>	<p>The most what I learned about myself is experiencing and improving English.</p> <p>I can be without my parents (not for ever).</p>
F2	<p>In this camp I learn listening to other people, respect different cultures, how to plan and organise activities and not only. And of course I made so many friends.</p>	<p>I learn to think before and then tell, to be open and friendlier, to learn English better ☺</p>
M1	<p>I learned that I am not good at inglish and at all planning activities and make my ideas clear as I think, but in this camp I learned a lot, and I really enjoy being in this camp.</p>	<p>Before this camp thought that I was very good at anything but in this camp I learned that I must not be very confident and I learned a lot in this camp.</p>
M2	<p>I'm more useful in my planning group to plan activities. I can do lots of energisers, I can communicate better with other people.</p> <p>I'm better than I was in past.</p>	<p>I learned to respect cultural differences.</p> <p>I was aggressive in past but I thought that I wasn't, but after CISV I'm better.</p>
Country E F1	<p>I have learned how to plan and run activities properly.</p> <p>To work in groups better and to contribute in discussions.</p> <p>Well planned activities are the only fun activities.</p>	<p>That I have more confidence in myself than I first thought I did ☺</p>
F2	<p>Hong Kong has a different government to China.</p> <p>Georgia has fancy writing</p> <p>I learnt how to write my name in Cantonese</p>	<p>I'm secretly a ninja ☺</p> <p>I camp up with an activity from scratch.</p>
M1	<p>That summer has two m's in it.</p> <p>That Newcastle is better than Sheffield.</p> <p>How to play Ninja Destruction with feet.</p>	<p>To have more confidence in myself ☺</p>
M2	<p>My spelling is terrible.</p> <p>That people on bikes aren't friendly.</p> <p>The magic factory completed my life</p> <p>Newcastle is colder than Sheffield</p> <p>Advanced Ninja destruction hurts</p>	<p>That the better planned activities are more fun.</p> <p>I am good at handstands</p> <p>That I don't speak greet proppa gerodie.</p> <p>I get bored really easy</p>

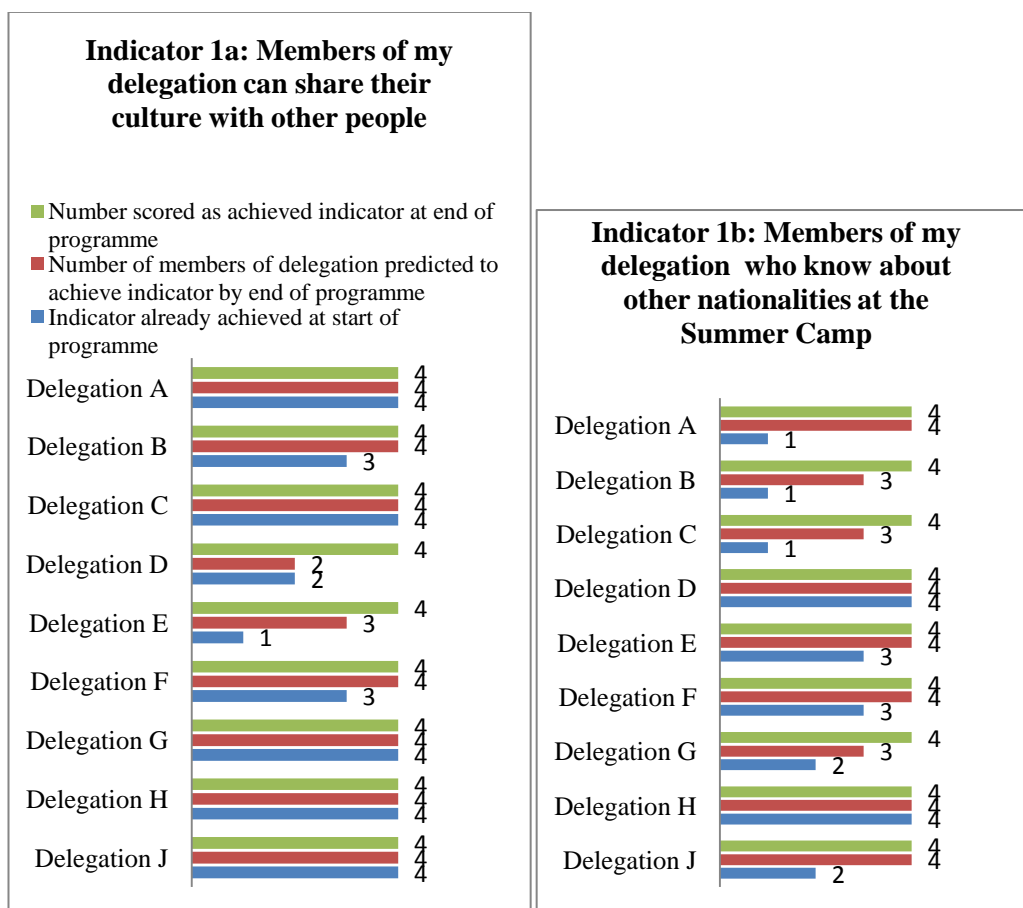
Country F F1	In this Summer Camp I learned that first it is not the place that makes the camp but mostly the people. I think that you learn about different cultures and how to control your judgement that has come with you from your own country. As well, I learned to judge the camp for what it is, and that even if I have been to another Summer Camp this is a different experience.	I have learned that being part of a leader is really understanding your group, and being able to step down when you can. Cause most of the time you won't be the only one that can lead.
F2	I learned how to communicate with people who don't speak good English. I also learned about other cultures and I met so many people from around the world.	I learned that if I change environment and if I'm not with familiar people which don't speak my language, my character changes. . . but day by day I became more confident about myself and about the English language.
F3	I learned about the others culture. The daily life of people in other countries. How to participate in a group. Many interesting activities.	That I am not very confident in speaking in front of many people, especially in another language. That I can share my culture with others.
M1	Many people have different oddities and we need to respect them. That you should not judge by someone's appearance.	That I can be social without always having to talk!
Country G F1	I learnt how to respect other cultures. I learnt that we have to listen and accept other ideas. Teamwork is REALLY IMPORTANT.	I'm not as brave and confident as I thought. I could take care of myself without my parents' reminder.
F2	I can learn more about different country How to get on well with others Team work Thinking about your thinking	I don't know why I can't be my real self in here. I can't always miss my home and friends all the time.
M1	Prepare an activity Planning Become more sociable Communicate with others Controlling the temper	Realise that my English standard is not enough I need to learn how to start a conversation
M2	The right solution to solve conflicts Cooperate and listen to others Respect others' feelings Care about each other Planning skills were enhanced	Realised I really love shopping Realised I love Jennifer Lopez Know more about my personality Feel that I can be awesome and fascinating.
Country H M1	It helped my English Make me understand a lot of important concepts Changed my ideas, made me knew more people. I met people from my CISV Village, I learned that friendship is one of the most important things. I also had a lot of fun ☺	I feel more responsible I know better myself and my personality, I understand what I feel, I love parties! I can trust other people.
M2	I learned a better English It's very difficult to communicate with other people with different languages.	I learned to be more responsible.
F1	I learned a lot of things about other culture I learned a better English	I'm more mature I'm more responsible
F2	I learned a better English I learned more of the culture of the other countries	Now I'm less shy

Country J M1	I found many things about different countries and also the fact about we are all <u>very</u> similar with what we do in everyday life.	Well, I've learned that I can be much more open at this summer camp than I can at home because I feel more open.
M2	In this camp I've learned so much about other cultures and about team building activities. I have also learned how to plan activities better and I learned the salsa.	This camp taught me many things about myself. I learned that I'm good at translating Spanish, I learned that I'm a natural leader, I learned that I choose my friends wisely, and most importantly I learned who I am as a person and that I am not a shallow friend or companion.
F1	To be confident in myself and share my ideas. That friendship can stay strong no matter how far away you are. (<i>was friendly with a GB participant from when in Village, jw.</i>) That no matter what people may seem at first, if you talk to them you can be surprised in good and bad ways.	That I don't like talking about my inner feelings . . . and that I should be honest to myself.
F2	I've learned about many different cultures. I absolutely love going to CISV programmes because I get to see how others live their life	I am definitely more confident in what I do. I've realise that I can do <u>anything</u> . CISV friends are for ever – no matter what.

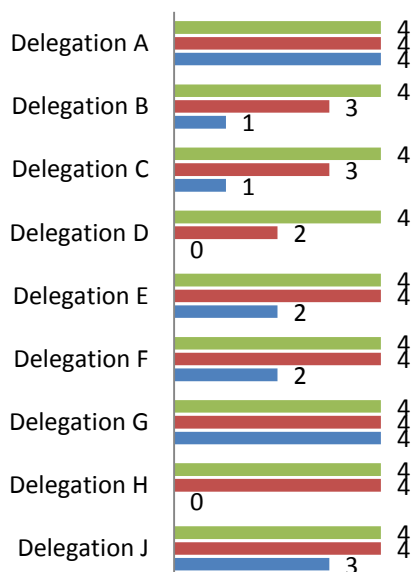
Appendix 12:

Leader perceptions of participant competence prior to programme, forecast for end of programme and actual numbers recorded as achieving each indicator

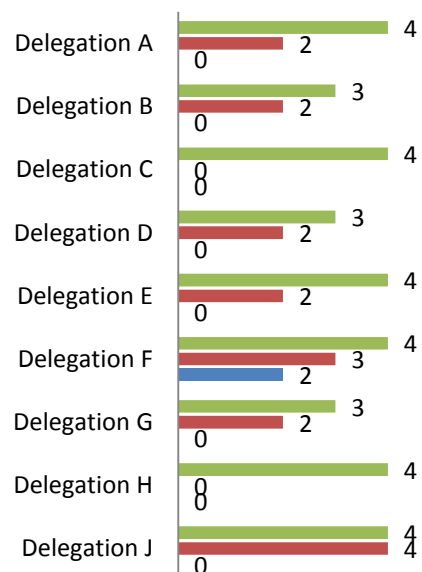
Summer Camp Leader perceptions of participant competence at beginning of programme (blue), predictions for the end of programme (red) and actual scoring at programme end (green). Four participants per delegation.



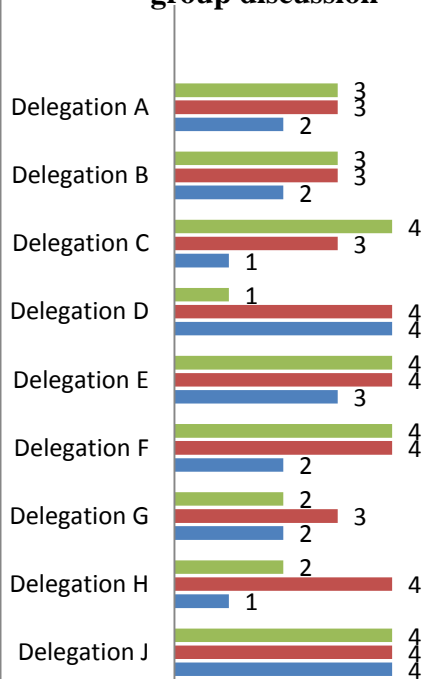
Indicator 2a: Members of my delegation are trained to plan and lead activities in camp



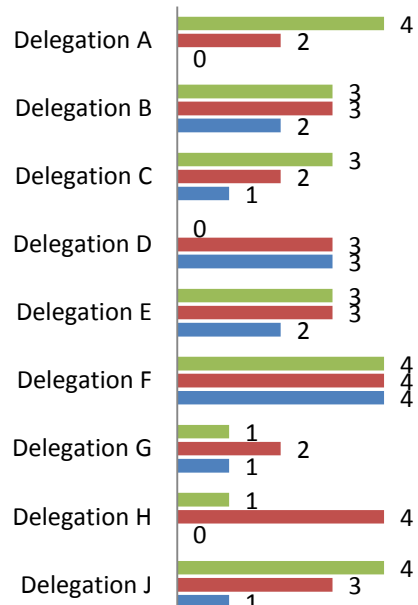
Indicator 2b: members of my delegation use the experiential learning cycle to plan and run activities



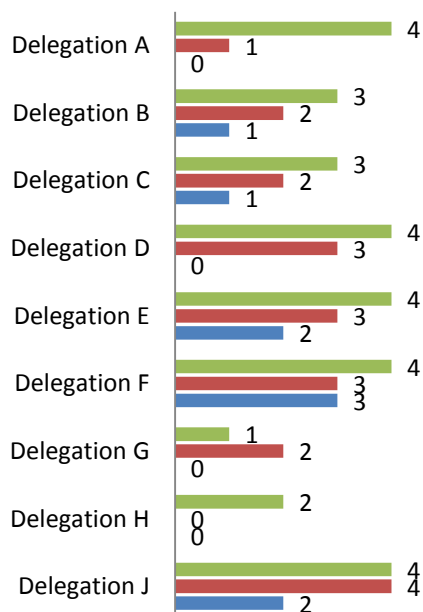
Indicator 2c: Members of my delegation can contribute to group discussion



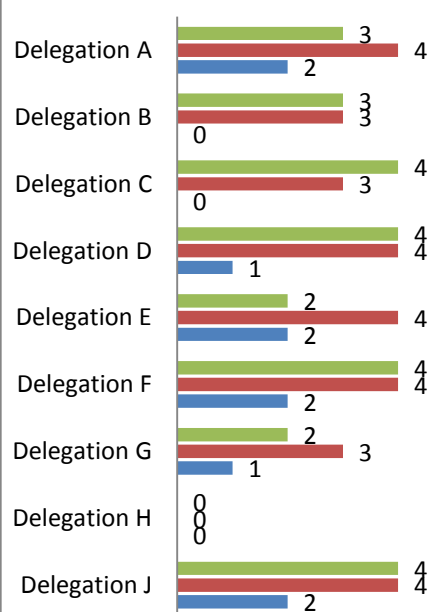
Indicator 2d: Members of my delegation are good at suggesting clear solutions to problems



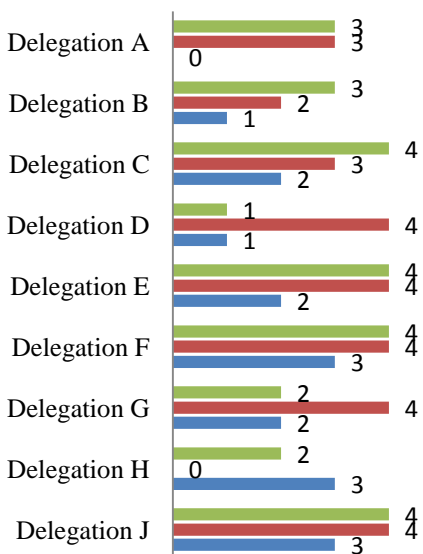
Indicator 3a: Members of my delegation can lead parts of the programme without adult assistance



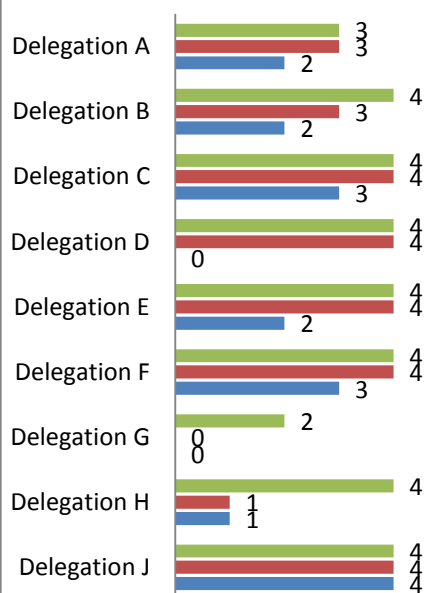
Indicator 3b: Members of my delegation use their personal feelings and thoughts in debriefing



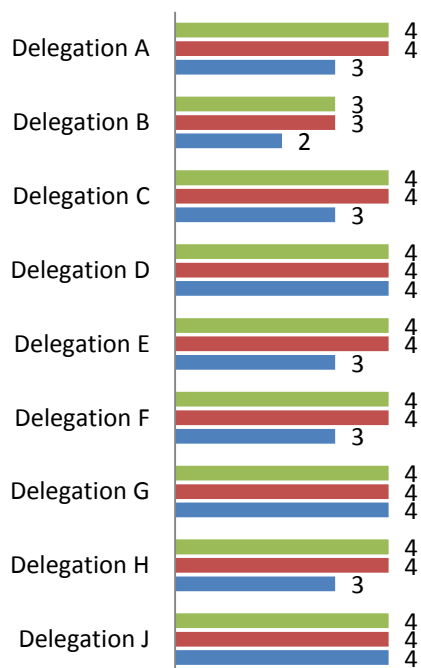
Indicator 3c: Members of my delegation can make their ideas clear so that others understand



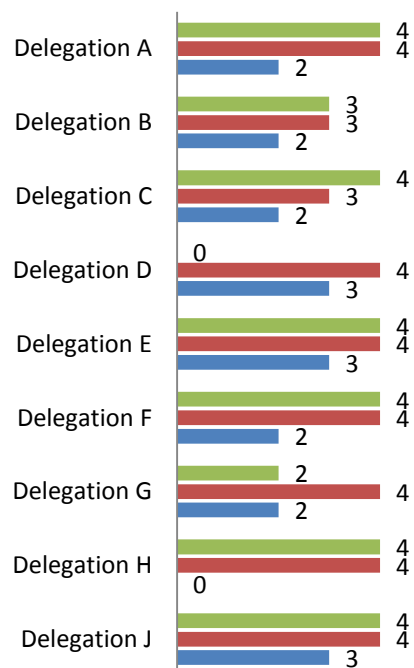
Indicator 3d: Members of my delegation are confident in what they do



Indicator 4a: Members of my delegation can cooperate with others to plan and lead activities



Indicator 4b: Members of my delegation can make sure that other participants feel included in group plans



Appendix 13:

Comments on Individual Evaluation Forms

Comments on Individual Evaluation Forms

Country A	F1	F2	M1	M2
1a: Share own culture with the camp	During culture activity and delegation of the day	Culture activity and delegation of the day	Culture activity and delegation of the day	Culture activity and delegation of the day
1b: Learn about at least two other cultures through different activities	Other countries culture activities	Other countries culture activities	Other countries culture activities	Other countries culture activities
2a: Receive training on how to plan and lead an activity before and during the first days of camp.	Before camp at youth training and during camp	Before camp at youth training and during camp	Before camp at youth training and during camp	Before camp at youth training and during camp
2b: Participate in planning and running activities	Very active on her planning group and leading activities	On planning time and during activities	Gave a lot of ideas in his planning group	Very active on his planning group
2c: Contribute during group discussion	Always share her opinions in discussions	Likes to share her opinion in discussions		Always interested in discussions
2d: Suggest solutions and solve problems objectively	While leading the camp meeting	Helped with conflicts between her delegate mates	Delegation time	During camp worked on how to share more clear and objectively
3a Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders	Went to her group, not leaders, before starting activities	Not much interference from leaders in her planning group and it run well	But always with his group, never alone	No interference from leaders in his planning, and things worked
3b: Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts	Always related the activities to personal experiences and shared with group	Discussion activity		Every debriefing
3c: Express independent ideas to promote group development	In debriefing and planning	Debriefing		At camp meeting
3d: Increase self confidence	Didn't increase, but she always had self-confidence	Speaking and explaining to the group	Overcame a few things that he didn't do cause of shy speaking in front of one, etc.	Had a lot of confidence since the begin but lost a little when people didn't understand him. Started to work that aspect and gain more confidence when started to share his ideas more clearly
4a: Work together as a team in planning and leading activities	Planning group, delegation	Planning, delegation	Culture activity and planning group	Planning, delegation

4b: Help others feel included in the group	On planning group, asked for everyone's opinion and tried to put everything together	Specially during free time	Free times	Planning group and free times
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Country B	M1	M2	F1	F2
1a: Share own culture with the camp	Y	Cultural activity	Cultural activity	Cultural activity
1b: Learn about at least two other cultures through different activities	Y	Cultural activities	Cultural activities	Cultural activities
2a: Receive training on how to plan and lead an activity before and during the first days of camp.	Y	Staff trained	Staff training	Staff training
2b: Participate in planning and running activities	N	Planning group	Planning group	Planning group
2c: Contribute during group discussion	N	Actively opened his mouth	Speaks openly in small / medium groups	Yes, likes to talk
2d: Suggest solutions and solve problems objectively	N	Any excuse to talk	Yes, very practical solutions	Yes; likes to be heard in small groups
3a Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders	N	Camp meeting	Planning group – Wacky Races [indecipherable] host	Lead planning group activities
3b: Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts	N	Always talks	Rarely; but does if feels important	Sometimes, but still will be quiet
3c: Express independent ideas to promote group development	N	Again likes to talk & argue	Planning group: needed as planning group	Yes
3d: Increase self confidence	Y	Minimal, came with a big ego	Very much, she told me so	Yes; she told me she is now comfortable leading a group
4a: Work together as a team in planning and leading activities	N	Lead planning group; another excuse to talk and be the centre of attention.	Planning group	Planning group leader
4b: Help others feel included in the group	N	Plays well with others	Friends with Z-- both kinda outcasts	Gossip / girl chat

Country C	F1	F2	M1	M2
1a: Share own culture with the camp				
1b: Learn about at least two other cultures through different activities	Stereotypes	Stereotypes	Stereotypes	Stereotypes
2a: Receive training on how to plan and lead an activity before and during the first days of camp.	First day of camp	During first day the staff gave the kids tools for planning	By staffs	First day by staff
2b: Participate in planning and running activities	Planning group	Planning group	Planning groups, although he didn't run any activity	Planning group
2c: Contribute during group discussion		Likes to express her opinions	Sometimes, few occasions; language problem	
2d: Suggest solutions and solve problems objectively	Participate in camp meetings	Helped delegation to get together when there is a problem		
3a Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders				
3b: Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts	She tries to participate in every debriefing		Few occasions	
3c: Express independent ideas to promote group development	During delegation time she leads some discussions			
3d: Increase self confidence	She is able to lead a group	She was able to lead a camp meeting	Tried to speak more English	He was able to lead a Camp Meeting
4a: Work together as a team in planning and leading activities	During planning time she tries to include everyone	With the planning group and with the delegation		He became a leader in the planning group and gave chance to other participants
4b: Help others feel included in the group	Helped another kid to solve his problems and work on his relationship with the group	Include everyone in conversations		

Country D	F1	F2	M1	M2
1a: Share own culture with the camp	Y Cultural activity	Y Cultural activity	Y Cultural activity	Y Cultural activity
1b: Learn about at least two other cultures through different activities	Y During cultural activities	Y Cultural activity	Y during Cultural activities	Y Cultural activities
2a: Receive training on how to plan and lead an activity before and during the first days of camp.	Y During planning groups	Y Previous village	Y during the camp which we had before the camp	Y We had training before this camp; also planning group.
2b: Participate in planning and running activities	N	Y Planning groups	N	Y Planning group
2c: Contribute during group discussion	N because of not knowing English well	Y only small groups	Y during debriefing	N
2d: Suggest solutions and solve problems objectively	N	N because of language problem	N because of language problem	N because of language problem
3a Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders	Y	Y	N	Y
3b: Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts	Y She has many ideas, just need to translate	Y debriefing in small groups	Y no for discussion after activity or during	Y discussion in small group, not big
3c: Express independent ideas to promote group development	Y during planning groups	N	N because of language problem	N
3d: Increase self confidence	Y	Y She's confident	Y	Y yes, he's confident
4a: Work together as a team in planning and leading activities	Y During discussion and activities	Y planning groups	Y planning group	Y Activities and planning groups
4b: Help others feel included in the group	N because of language problem	N	n	N – because of language problem

Country E	F1	F2	M1	M2
1a: Share own culture with the camp			During general discussions	
1b: Learn about at least two other cultures through different activities	Cultural activities and group discussions	Cultural activities and group discussions	Cultural activities and group discussions	Cultural activities and group discussion
2a: Receive training on how to plan and lead an activity before and during the first days of camp.	On-camp training only	Only during first days of camp	Only in camp	During camp
2b: Participate in planning and running activities	Planning group	Good work with planning group	Independent brainstorming in planning group	Sometimes reluctant to share ideas in planning group but good input
2c: Contribute during group discussion	Planning group and activities	More willing to contribute as camp progresses	Several times in activity debrief	Better in 'informal' situation than structured discussions
2d: Suggest solutions and solve problems objectively		In planning group	Especially in planning group	
3a Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders	Good input in planning group but reluctant to lead activities	Led several activities alone	Ran several activities	Led a few activities (Likes doing energisers)
3b: Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings/ thoughts		Especially during USA cultural activity	Shared some ideas and feelings in group discussions	
3c: Express independent ideas to promote group development			By working with other in planning time and free time	
3d: Increase self confidence	Slight, but noticeable, increase	Significant increase in self confidence expressed during activities, planning and free time	No significant increase but already very high at start of camp	
4a: Work together as a team in planning and leading activities	During planning groups	Impressive in planning group	Helped to plan and lead a number of activities	Some good ideas in planning group
4b: Help others feel included in the group	Observed during free time	Often shows concern for others feelings but sometimes needs advice on how to include them	During planning and free time	Mostly in free time

Country F	F1	F2	F3	M1
1a: Share own culture with the camp	Y	Y She talks about educational system	Y	Y He understood the difference between Greek and other countries. He teaches the others Greek words
1b: Learn about at least two other cultures through different activities	Y	Y She learnt about Georgian religion	Y	Y During cultural activities of Georgia / Brazil
2a: Receive training on how to plan and lead an activity before and during the first days of camp.	Y	Y During planning group	Y	Y He received training from leaders & staff
2b: Participate in planning and running activities	Y Many ideas on how to plan	Y She is very organised	Y She is very good at explaining a game/activity	Y He wants someone to encourage him
2c: Contribute during group discussion	Y	N	Y She listens to the others carefully	Y Only with Greek delegation / free time / games
2d: Suggest solutions and solve problems objectively	Y	N	Y	Y He asked kindly a girl from his own delegation to stop annoying the others
3a Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders	Y	Y There was no need to remind her what to do	Y	Y
3b: Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts	Y Very good at this topic	Y During delegation / free time	Y	Y Only during delegation time
3c: Express independent ideas to promote group development	y	Y during planning	Y	Y During planning cultural activity
3d: Increase self confidence	Y	Y she did energisers	Y	Y He participates in many different teenage groups
4a: Work together as a team in planning and leading activities	Y	Y Very good preparation for cultural activity	Y	Y During planning cultural activity he proposed ideas and shared roles
4b: Help others feel included in the group	Y She asks the people who don't talk easily to tell their point of view and she encourages them	Y She tells them jokes or making funny voices	y	Y He respects the view of the others and make them feel comfortable with him

Country G	F1	F2	M1	M2
1a: Share own culture with the camp	Y She did well in the cultural activity	Y Cultural activity	Y Cultural activities	Y Cultural activity
1b: Learn about at least two other cultures through different activities	Y	Y Other delegation's cultural activities	Y Through other delegation's cultural activities Pre-camp in HK	Y Through other delegation's cultural activities
2a: Receive training on how to plan and lead an activity before and during the first days of camp.	Y We had pre camp in HK	Y Pre-camp in HK	Y Planning group	Y Pre-camp in [home country]
2b: Participate in planning and running activities	Y She is active in her planning group	N	N	Y He is so good at leading the energisers
2c: Contribute during group discussion	Y But only a few times	N	N	Y
2d: Suggest solutions and solve problems objectively	N	N	N	Y He suggest a good solution during the Greek cultural activity (moving chair apart)
3a Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders	N She still need to be assisted while leading activities	N	N	Y He can lead a whole activity with one or two other guys without leaders help
3b: Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts	Y She did share her feelings during debriefing	N	N	Y He speaks during evaluation & debriefing time
3c: Express independent ideas to promote group development	Y She always has ideas, but not most of the ideas can improve the group	N	N	Y During activities
3d: Increase self confidence	Y She is confident originally	N	N	Y He's always confident
4a: Work together as a team in planning and leading activities	Y She can well cooperate with her group-mates in planning	Y Planning group	Y Planning group	Y Planning group
4b: Help others feel included in the group	N She is kind of passive	N	Y Planning group	Y Play ball game with other boys

Country H	M1	M2	F1	F2
1a: Share own culture with the camp	Y He talked with everybody	Y Talked to everyone	Y Tried to explain about Italy	Y She talked to the others
1b: Learn about at least two other cultures through different activities	Y He learned about all of them	Y He learned about all of them	Y Learned about all of them	Y She learned about them all
2a: Receive training on how to plan and lead an activity before and during the first days of camp.	Y National training and also during the camp	Y National training and also during the camp	Y National training and during the camp	Y National training and in the first days
2b: Participate in planning and running activities	Y Always	Y If he hadn't hurt his leg he would've. (he was always ready to help)	Y She's still very shy	Y Never heard her complaining
2c: Contribute during group discussion	Y Even with a language problem	N Problem with language	N Problem with English	N Problems with the language
2d: Suggest solutions and solve problems objectively	Y even with a language problem	N Problem with language	N Problem with English	N Too shy to speak a foreign language
3a Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders	Y Full of ideas	Y Gave really interesting ideas	N If a leader didn't ask her a direct question she wouldn't talk	N She's not much of a leader
3b: Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts	Y Preferred the active part	N Problem with language	N Language problem	N Problem with English
3c: Express independent ideas to promote group development	Y Wasn't afraid to say what he thought	Y The cultural activity was all his idea	N Language problem	N Problem with English
3d: Increase self confidence	Y Already very self confident	Y It was a great change, I'm impressed	Y It got better towards the end	Y Started talking to many kids
4a: Work together as a team in planning and leading activities	Y Always	Y Always.	Y She would help always	Y Work together more than leading
4b: Help others feel included in the group	Y Talked to everyone	Y GREAT KID	Y She talked to everyone	Y Very nice to everyone

Country J	M1	M2	F1	F2
1a: Share own culture with the camp	Y Cultural activity / conversations with other participants	Y Cultural activity / conversations with other participants	Y Cultural activity / conversations with other participants	Y Cultural activity / conversations with other participants
1b: Learn about at least two other cultures through different activities	Y Through cultural activities	Y through cultural activities	Y through cultural activities / cultural exchange in friendships	Y through cultural activities / cultural exchange in friendships
2a: Receive training on how to plan and lead an activity before and during the first days of camp.	Y Continual training through planning group time and before camp began	Y Continual training through planning group time and before camp began	Y Continual training in planning time / presentation at beginning of camp	Y Continual training in planning time / presentation at beginning of camp
2b: Participate in planning and running activities	Y One of the more outspoken in his planning group. Often led the explanation of an activity	Y Often took the lead in running activities	Y Collaboration with planning group to develop ideas for activities, took the lead in explaining activities a few times	Y Often wrote for the planning group and took the lead in running the activity a few times
2c: Contribute during group discussion	Continually contributed in his planning group	Y Often spoke in debriefing sessions after activities	Y Expressed opinion in yes/no/maybe activity	Y continually contributing in planning group and debriefing sessions
2d: Suggest solutions and solve problems objectively	Y Very evident in delegation time and solving any conflicts that arose	Y Seen and demonstrated in planning group and debriefing	Y Oftentimes offered ideas for solutions in situations of conflict	Y Very evident in delegation time and solving any conflict that arose
3a Lead daily programme with minimal assistance from leaders	Natural leader in planning group. Showed great initiative in leading program by self.	Y Planning group cooperation with minimal assistance	Able to lead activities by herself without difficulty	Y Natural leader in planning group. Often offered to explain activities or write down ideas within group
3b: Contribute to debriefing by sharing personal feelings and thoughts	Able to comfortably share ideas and feelings in a group	Often shared after activities about his reactions to the goals of the activity	Y Occurred numerous times throughout activities and especially during activity 'yes/no/maybe'.	Y Took place more often near end of camp, especially in 'yes/no/maybe' activity
3c: Express independent ideas to promote group development	No significant increase as this is a strong area for Chris	Offered suggestions during planning as well as during delegation time	Y Increased throughout camp as her comfort grew	Y No significant increase as she did this well at the beginning of camp
3d: Increase self confidence	No significant increase as this is a strong area for Chris	Much more able to speak in front of large groups	Y Able to more effectively express her ideas and thoughts to others in the group	Y No significant increase, already possessed strong sense of self and confidence

4a: Work together as a team in planning and leading activities	Worked well with planning team, offered suggestions, listened with appropriate skills and led activities often	Collaborated well with others in planning group; able to listen to other perspectives and ideas	Y No significant increase as she did this well with teamwork from the start of camp	Y worked very well with planning team, offered suggestions, listened when appropriate, and led activities
4b: Help others feel included in the group	Could be seen often talking to others not engaged and encouraged others to participate in group	Invited others in planning group to also engage	Y Invited others to engage in activities or to be included in conversations – many times.	Y Could be seen talking to others not engaged and encouraged others to participate in group